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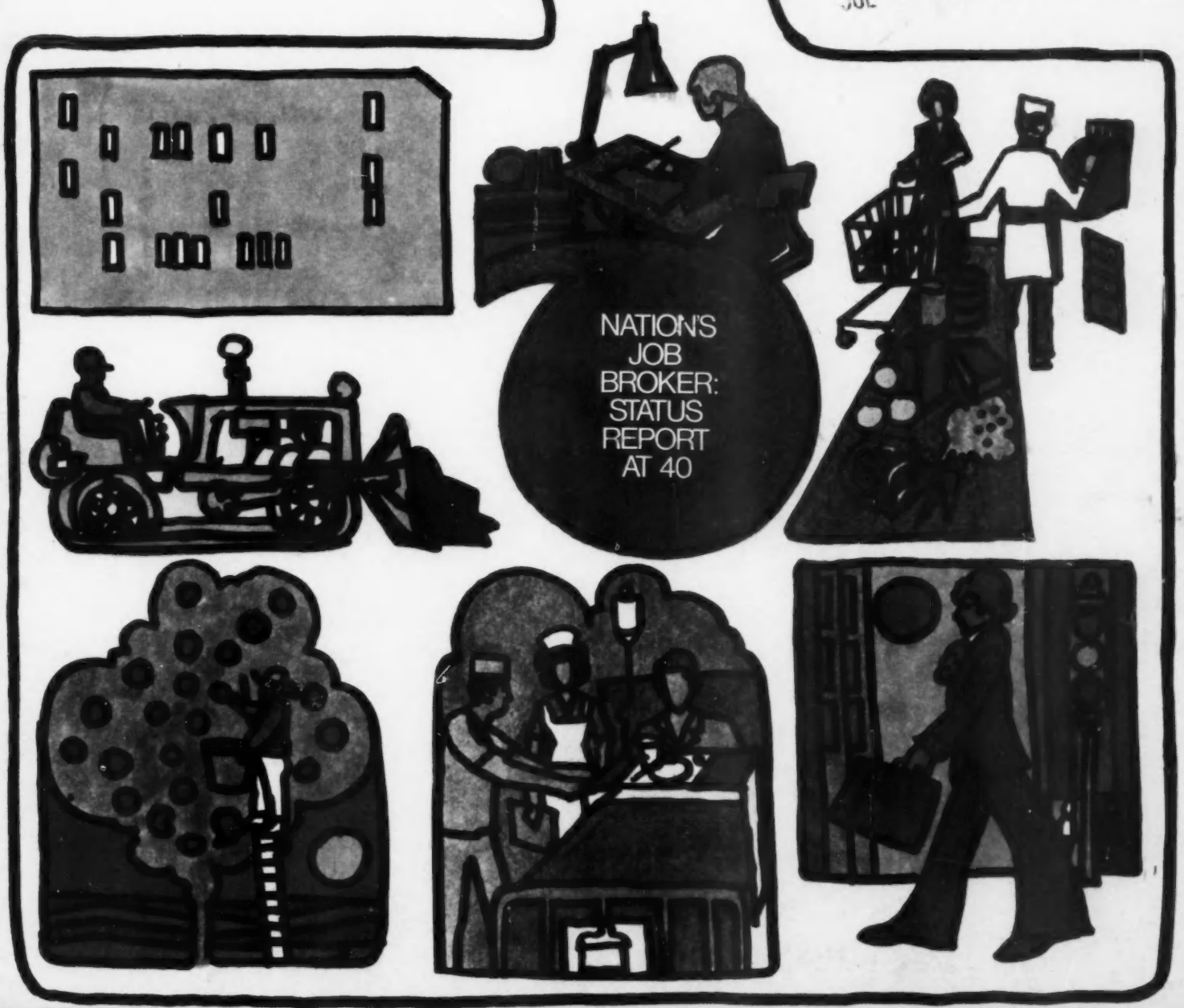

manpower
volume 5 number 6
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

An Impressive Partnership

The statistics which reflect the work of the Public Employment Service during its 40 years of existence are most impressive by any standards.

More than 400 million job placements have been made, an average of 42,000 each working day. Often these placements involved a wide variety of other services, such as counseling and aptitude and other testing. In addition, other hundreds of thousands of people have received needed job training through these offices.

Over the years, the employment service responded to one crisis after another, accepting new and urgent assignments to meet changing times and emerging problems. It began in 1933 with the sharp challenge of unprecedented labor surplus in a nation shaken by the massive unemployment of the Great Depression; in less than 10 years it helped assure the survival of freedom by solving the labor shortage problems produced by mobilization for World War II.

Then it went on to deal successfully with the employment implications of a series of sharp recessions in the 1950's, with the cycles of war and peace stemming from two Asian conflicts, with dislocations caused by great changes in agriculture and the rise of automation; and it helped meet the demand for new skills stemming from the space program. While rising to this wide variety of challenges, it continued to develop internationally respected tools of job placement.

In the early 1960's, a whole new area of challenge and opportunity opened: Helping to meet the special labor problems of those broadly designated as disadvantaged—the undereducated, the unskilled, the unready. In this new effort, intensified and individualized services were proffered to client groups having the most serious problems in preparing for and holding a productive and self-supporting place in the job market. Veterans have been given special preference.

To this unique Federal-State partnership—the Public Employment Service—I wish, on the occasion of its 40th anniversary, to extend my heartiest congratulations on the accomplishments of the past 40 years, and my best wishes for even greater success in the next 40 years.

Peter J. Brennan
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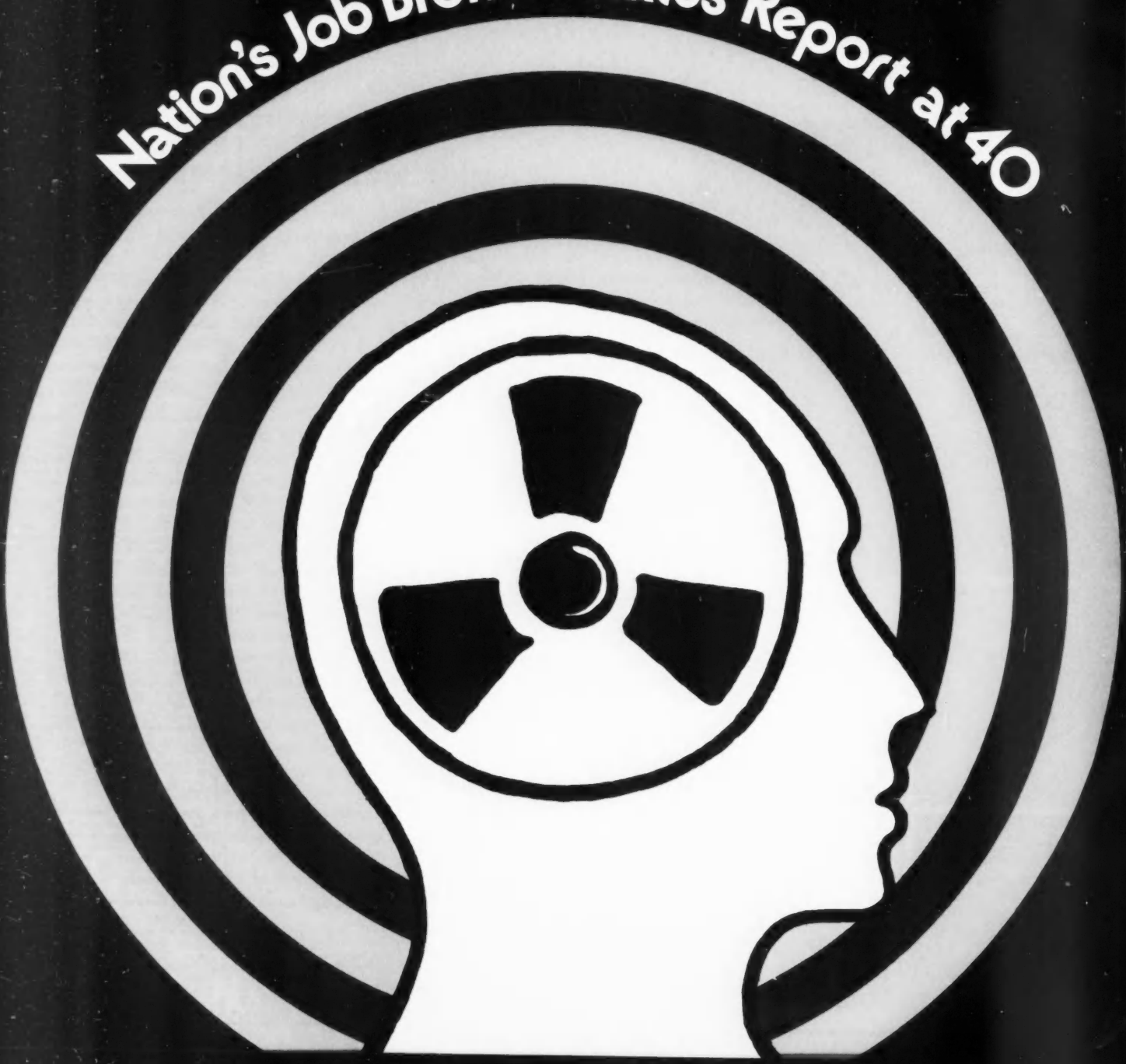
by Patricia Marshall

Nation's Job Broker: Status Report at 40



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U.S. Employment Service Meshes Manpower Needs at Local Level

In Salt Lake City, business is booming and employment is up in nearly all sectors. At the Chamber of Commerce, the city's official boosters are attracting new industry with data on "The Wasatch Front" and talk about "Winning the West from Utah"—references to this area's development as a warehouse-distribution hub serving seven major West Coast ports and an intermountain population of 33 million people. The tourist industry is healthy, thanks in part to the quality of local ski slopes. New office buildings and hotels pierce the downtown Salt Lake skyline and new shopping malls and housing are underway in the suburbs. They account for much of the 13 percent expansion in construction jobs in the city in the past year. Across the board, the number of new jobs jumped more than 6 percent, setting an alltime growth record.

New Records Set

The Salt Lake offices of the Utah Department of Employment Security also set some records. In such tasks as occupational testing and counseling, referrals of individuals to job openings, and the number of persons placed in jobs—what the local employment service (ES) staff refers to as "the hard data on employment service operations"—there was a surge last year of 10 to 25 percent above the previous year as employers and jobseekers beat a path to the agency's doors to meet their employment needs.

The ES is headquartered in a metro office, which spreads across four large floors in the center of the city. Nearly all of its services are provided at this site. However, Salt Lake also has two offices offering outreach services in low-income areas and a casual labor office serving laborers and employers who want temporary help.

Last year thousands of jobseekers entered the ES, a great many of these people initially coming in to file for unemployment insurance. Although the Salt Lake area has enjoyed an economic boom of substantial proportions, it also has suffered a steady increase in unemployment over the past 2 years. Local economists place most of the blame for this disparity on the fact that the traditional pattern of out-migration to jobs in other parts of the country has been reversed. In 1970, there began to be sizable increases in in-migration, and these have been large enough to push the Salt Lake area's unemployment rate to 5.2 percent last year despite the dramatic increases in job opportunities.

Helping people in any community to meet their employment needs is a complex undertaking in today's world. It requires detailed knowledge of the local labor market, which can shift without much warning due to fluctuations in the economy, changes in the kinds of purchases consumers make, and the like. Also, it takes an ability to serve widely varying client needs.

Some ES job applicants are highly skilled and mostly require detailed and up-to-date information on job openings in their area. Salt Lake, for example, has a goodly number of these jobseekers because of underemployment among educated workers. This results from a growing imbalance between industrial demands and the population's educational level. More than 60 percent of the area's young people get post-high school training, most of it in college. The industries which are growing most rapidly, however, do not employ a high proportion of college-trained workers.

A local ES office also must serve unskilled young people who have little or no work experience and need some counseling to decide on job openings they can qualify for. It must help older workers who have lost lifetime jobs and don't know where to turn next. Still other applicants are disadvantaged persons who may need special services before they succeed in getting work.

In recent years, local employment service offices throughout the U.S. focused much of their effort on this last group, which accounts for roughly 20 percent of the nationwide ES clientele. Unfortunately, as extensive employability development services for disadvantaged applicants absorbed increasing amounts of ES resources and staff time, contacts with employers declined. Traditionally, the ES has performed many services for employers, who are the gatekeepers to jobs. It has advised them on the availability of workers to staff new plants, identified training needs, helped develop training programs, recommended employment practices to control absenteeism and turnover, and the like.

As it turned out, fewer contacts with employers in recent years hurt the placements of both disadvantaged workers and other applicants. Too often, the disadvantaged were made job ready only to find there were no jobs. Nationwide, ES permanent nonfarm placements dropped 30 percent between 1966 and 1970, although the number of nonfarm jobs rose about 10 percent.

Placements Stressed

Today, Robert Brown, associate manpower administrator for the United States Employment Service (USES), is placing strong emphasis on greatly boosting placements and reestablishing relationships with employers. To accomplish these goals, he has adopted improved management systems to help achieve better expenditures of staff time and other resources. Also, much work that was done by hand until recently is now computerized. Such steps make it possible for local offices to give job applicants and employers better service, geared to their specific needs. Often, as in Salt Lake, these increased capabilities are being developed without adding staff, and some local offices have reduced the number of their employees.

Salt Lake's metro unit offers an ex-

Patricia Marshall is assistant editor of MANPOWER.

Salt Lake computer operator Raymond C. Vest checks the master controls of the applicant-job matching system to locate the source of a problem that was interfering with transmission between a terminal and the computer.

A jobseeker accompanied by his family (above) and a construction worker who took part of his lunch period to see if any better jobs were open look at the Job Information Service (JIS) listings at the Salt Lake City metro office.

WIN team counselor Anthony Reiter interviews a new trainee in the Salt Lake WIN Program.

ample of how the new systems work, although computer capabilities in this State are somewhat different from those in other States. Generally, most other urban ES offices now use a Job Bank. This is a computer operation that stores data on employers' job orders and does a daily printout of the information for distribution to all ES units and cooperating agencies in the area. Within the next few years, States using the Job Bank are expected to move into a computerized operation for job applicants as well as job orders and in this process will use a refined vocabulary formed for the computer. Utah was one of the early pioneers doing computerized man-job matching. Its statewide system, developed on assignment from USES, is one of 10 test projects in which States are working on the complex design problems involved in shaping computer man-job matching systems.

Application Required

The jobseeker making an initial visit to Salt Lake's ES metro office is greeted by a receptionist—and a video data terminal. His social security number is fed into the machine and transmitted to the Utah Department of Employment Security's computer center several miles away. In less than a second, a file search is made and an answer is kicked back. If an application is on file, it appears on the video screen and can quickly be reproduced by high-speed printers. But if the computer lacks an application, the jobseeker makes one out. Again, unless he needs special help, the jobseeker once more turns to a machine—this time for a 15-minute audiovisual orientation on how to make out an application so that it meets the special requirements of computerized service.

Once their applications are on file, people can choose the routes they want to take to employment. Many opt for the simplest and quickest path—the Job Information Service (JIS). This is located in an area with display boards that have current job openings posted under various occupational headings. When the jobseeker finds something he qualifies for, he fills out a request slip. An ES referral interviewer then checks to see that he meets the employer's requirements and may call the employer to see if the job is still open and if the employer would like to interview more applicants. If so, the jobseeker gets a referral slip for an appointment with the employer.

The whole JIS process takes but a few minutes, permits jobseekers to see for themselves job orders that have just come into the employment service, and pays rich dividends in time saved for ES staff.

About 150 major metropolitan areas are expected to have a JIS by next month. In addition to up-to-date job listings, each of these units offers jobhunters a wide variety of library materials on such subjects as job-finding techniques, the employment outlook for specific occupations. and local day care and transportation services.

Jobseekers who want more help may bypass JIS and talk to an employment interviewer. As many as 500 people a day make this choice in Salt Lake's metro office. Interviewers are well acquainted with the outlook, wage trends, employer expectations, and other job data for the occupational areas in which they specialize. In cities with a Job Bank, interviewers can tap into the system for a list of all current openings. With the special facilities available in Salt Lake, they can ask the computer to do a rapid search of its files and come up with job orders or even training opportunities which most closely match an applicant's characteristics.

Despite all the mechanization now woven into their operations, ES staffers in Salt Lake point out that people, not machines, still are at the heart of their work. Computers simply speed services and enable the ES to broaden the scope of what it can do for its clientele.

New ES systems across the country also are freeing up time to do more for people who are the least job ready and need the most help—members of minority groups and the poor. Nationally, there has been what USES administrator Brown calls a "turnaround" in the numbers of such persons being placed in employment. There were 1.6 million of them placed in the first half of fiscal 1973, a 21.5 percent increase over the same period in 1972, and a 49.5 percent increase over comparable months in 1971.

In the entire Salt Lake metropolitan area there are close to 14,000 persons who are poor and another 15,000 near poverty out of a total population of 504,-000. Most of those who are disadvantaged —in other words, those who have the most severe problems—are white. The Spanish-speaking comprise the second largest group among the disadvantaged, and about 1 of every 10 Indians is disadvantaged. However, only about 1 in 3 disadvantaged persons is out of work and looking for work. The rest are employed full time but have family incomes below the poverty level, are employed only part-time, or are able to work but are not looking for a job.

The ES finds that one of the problems facing the disadvantaged in Salt Lake is that the city has a significant number of skilled and professional people who are employed below the level of their training and ability. Consequently, there is a filtering down process going on which results in the underutilization or unemployment of disadvantaged persons, nearly all of whom have but rudimentary skills. Because they are burdened with numerous handicaps, the disadvantaged require a great many ES services—detailed assessment of all aptitudes and potential work skills, development of individual employability plans which specify training or other pre-employment needs, and referral to other community agencies for help on such matters as health and day care.

Team Approach Used

A number of disadvantaged persons who use ES services in Salt Lake are enrolled in the Work Incentive (WIN) Program, an effort to move people off welfare and into jobs. As generally is the case, the State employment security agency is the WIN sponsor, but day-to-day responsibilities are assigned to local ES offices.

At Salt Lake's metro office, a team approach is used with 1,000 participants who have come into WIN from Salt Lake and Tooele Counties. Each of five teams is responsible for counseling and giving other basic preemployment help to 200 persons. A sixth team works with employers, both public and private, to line up regular jobs and on-job training opportunities and to oversee certifications in connection with tax credits available to employers who hire WIN participants.

Not all the problems to be dealt with rest with the disadvantaged, WIN teams have found. Often, they must cope with

Job Broker
continued

employer stereotypes about people on welfare and with employer fears of Government "red tape." There also is rather widespread ignorance of tax credits and other employer benefits, team members say. As a result, they have had to work hard to sell employers on the program's merits, one of these being the small amount of paperwork involved.

Currently, WIN teams are meeting goals which they feel are realistic in light of the multiple problems they face. These goals call for about 160 WIN participants to be placed in regular jobs and about 25 to go into on-job training each month.

The poor are not the only people getting special employment services at local ES offices. By law, veterans have priority in job referrals and each local office has staff assigned to work with veterans, explain the services available, and make certain that veterans do get preference. Youth, the handicapped, and older workers also get extra help in employment services. And when special employment problems crop up among other workers, local ES offices offer more intensive employment services to these groups as well. Salt Lake, for example, has a volunteer-staffed placement service in its metro office to assist jobless engineers, scientists, teachers, management personnel, electronic technicians, and other highly qualified professionals.

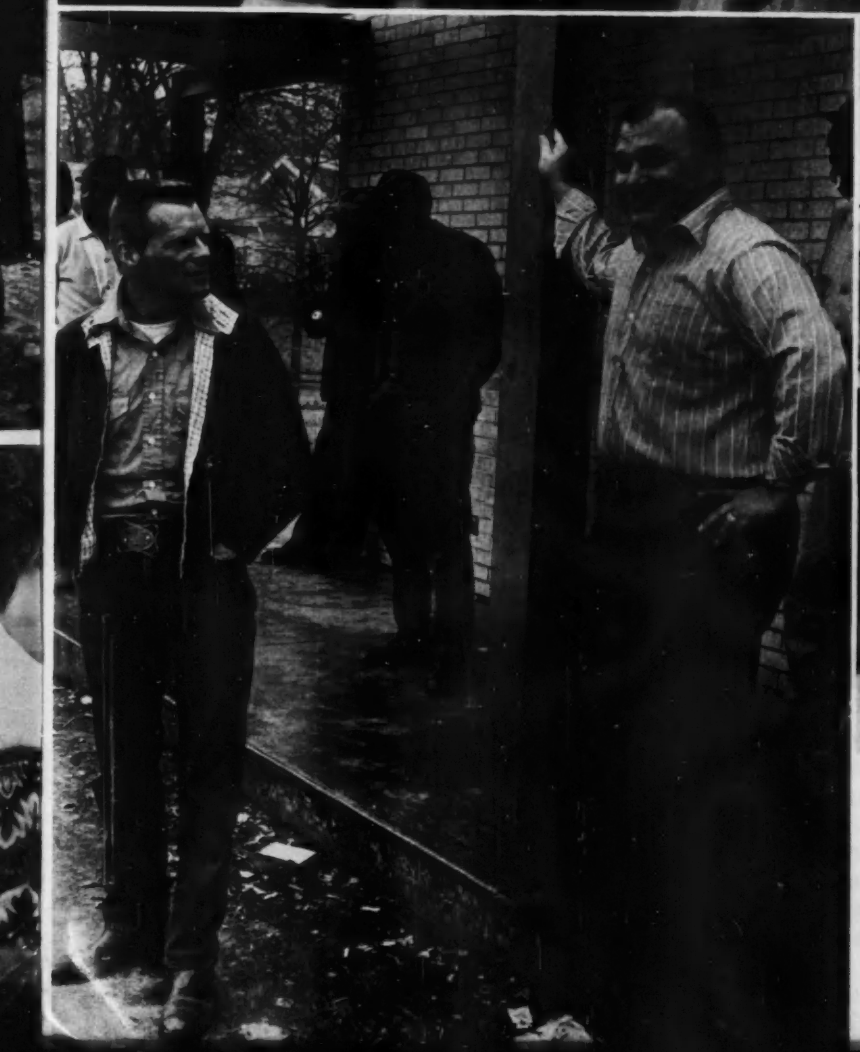
Placing any applicant in a job depends, of course, not only on the job being there but also on ES access to it. Now that the employment service once more is emphasizing services to employers as well as to jobseekers, USES administrator Brown says, the number of jobs listed with the agency has taken a sharp upward turn. Nationwide, nonagricultural listings at local employment service offices increased by nearly 800,000 in the first half of fiscal year 1973 over the comparable months in 1972.

Boosting the number of listings is a multifaceted enterprise. All large ES offices have an employer services unit whose staff spends most of its time calling on local employers to keep up on their needs for workers. The special efforts that are made on behalf of various worker groups —such as veterans—also bring in new job orders from employers. In addition, many employers are covered by a law requiring Federal contractors and sub-

A Shreveport manufacturer of fiberglass sailboats has hired a number of women through the WIN Program operated by the local employment service office.

Many workers at the Western Electric plant in Shreveport are hired through the employment service. The plant has the biggest work force of any manufacturing facility in the State. Before locating in Shreveport, Western Electric consulted with the employment service to learn about the availability of labor.

Workers who lost their jobs when the Libbey-Owens-Ford plate glass plant in Shreveport closed are being retrained in small engine repair and upholstering. The training was arranged by the employment service under the Trade Expansion Act of 1962, which provides benefits for people thrown out of work because of competition from foreign firms.



Workers awaiting job offers outside the Shreveport casual labor office are joined by D. J. Phillips (right), office supervisor. Many employers who want help for only a day or two simply drive up, state their needs, and drive off with workers. Others telephone Phillips first and make arrangements to pick up men or have them get their own transportation.

The Job Bank orders Diane Clewell punches onto a tape at the Shreveport regional data control center are transmitted to the computer at Baton Rouge, and then transmitted statewide for distribution to all ES offices.

contractors to list their job openings with the employment service.

Local ES offices can differ greatly, even though they perform the same basic services. Each one must respond to the employment situation in its own locality, and to the groups of workers who are in greatest need of help.

For example, in Louisiana the educational deficiencies of youth help create some serious employment problems. Only 55 percent of the pupils who enter the first grade in this State remain in school until they get a high school diploma. Large numbers apparently enter the labor market without much idea of how to go about getting or keeping a job.

To meet needs of this nature, the Louisiana State ES operates a Youth Opportunity Center (YOC) in Shreveport. At the center youth 16 through 21 years old—both students and dropouts—get personalized counseling, occupational testing, help in making vocational plans, job training information, and job placement service. Last year the YOC placed 2,248 young men and women in permanent, nonagricultural jobs. In addition, the YOC each year runs a big summer jobs for youth campaign which enlists the support of local businessmen. Last summer more than 2,500 young people got work as a result of this effort in the Shreveport-Bossier City area.

Displaced Workers Aided

Assistance for workers displaced from their jobs by foreign competition and eligible for benefits under the Trade Expansion Act of 1962 is another ES responsibility of great importance in the Shreveport area. In the fall of 1971, Libbey-Owens-Ford Company closed down its plate glass manufacturing plant here as a result of such competition. Highly skilled and managerial employees were transferred to other Libbey plants, but many semiskilled people were thrown out of work, some of them men in their midfifties who had worked 25 or 30 years for the company and had scanty work experience elsewhere. There were 342 workers certified as eligible for assistance under the Act who applied to the Shreveport ES for weekly readjustment allowances and other benefits.

Of these workers, 138 have been placed in training classes to learn small engine repair, upholstery, bookkeeping, welding, and other skills. Others have been placed in jobs or are still trying to get employment. One of the great problems in finding comparable work for these men, according to ES staff, is that they are not only low-skilled but previously were paid well above prevailing local rates. Many of them now must do some readjusting in their standards of living.

Louisiana is one of 32 States with statewide Job Banks. About three-fifths of all ES offices, serving about 70 percent of the Nation's population, use these facilities. In Louisiana the decision was made to have three regional banks serviced by a central computer to serve different geographic-industrial sections of the State. The Shreveport regional Job Bank, which has been operating for 2 years, serves 11 employment service offices in the northern part of Louisiana.

All offices in the Shreveport district take employer job orders and feed them into their regional Job Bank. The information is updated by computer at the end of each workday and is printed out on small microfilm cards known as microfiche. These cards are distributed to every placement office throughout the State by early the next morning and used by ES interviewers to do a rapid scan of all openings which meet each jobseeker's qualifications. This process spares jobseekers the trouble of going from office to office to check job openings. Employers also like it because it makes their labor needs known throughout Louisiana within a day.

Another spinoff of the Job Bank is a self-service unit—a Job Information Service (JIS)—in the Shreveport employment service. This unit has up-to-date computer printouts of job openings grouped by occupational categories. All important facts about each job are listed except the employer's name, which is deleted in order to limit applicant referrals to the number an employer has requested. Like all JIS operations, the purpose is to speed services to job-ready applicants and to save ES staff time that is better spent with applicants who need a broader range of services.

Since the JIS started in Shreveport, it has averaged 170 applicant visits a day. Last year, more than 5,000 referrals of jobseekers and over 700 permanent placements were made through the JIS.

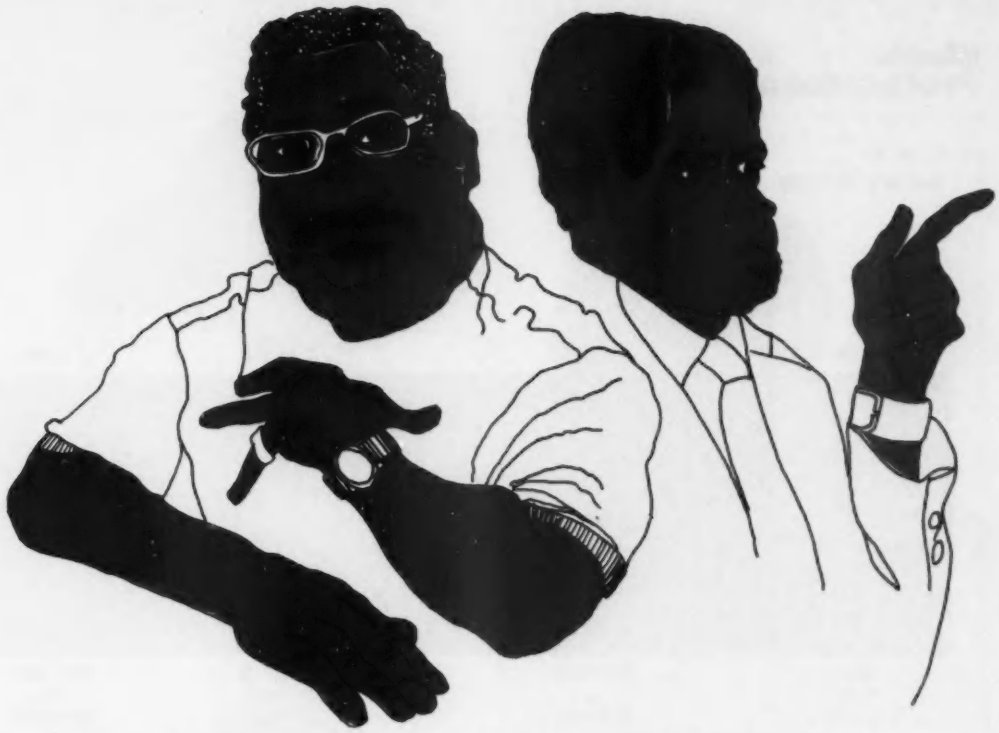
Services of this kind depend, of course, on more than modern computer techniques. They lean heavily on years of U.S. Employment Service expertise in occupational research and analysis and on the organization of job and worker requirements into systematic classifications. Before the ES put computers to work on speeding and spreading job listings and matching applicants with jobs, the descriptions and code numbers in the DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES, a unique and basic document developed by the employment service, were used to identify employer needs and jobseeker skills. Today, with computers taking over much of the paperwork once done by ES workers, the uniform language and coding in these occupational classification systems is indispensable.

Hard Lessons Learned

There has not always been such a happy mating of the past with the present in the Federal-State employment service system. In recent years, the employment service has had to learn some hard lessons. Chief of these is that old institutions can survive only if they continue responding to the priorities and needs of the present. The employment service was sharply criticized in the late 1960's for not responding fast enough, or with enough understanding and knowledge, to the needs of the disadvantaged. As ES job listings and placements declined, it has been critized for poor performance of its basic functions.

"But today we are again emphasizing placements and job development," says USES administrator Brown, "because we best serve all groups of jobseekers when employers use the services of the public employment agency as a source of workers.

"We are making rapid progress with our experiments in computerized man-job matching systems around the country which will add new capabilities to existing computerized systems. We are maintaining concern for all applicants. We are greatly improving placement results for veterans, disadvantaged persons, and minorities as well as for highly qualified applicants. And we are insisting upon appraisals of our performance which will enable us to do a better job for the Nation's jobseekers and the Nation's business." □



Black Professionals: Progress and Skepticism

Despite Advancement in Jobs and Salary Men Doubt They Can Go as Far as Whites

The 1960's saw a marked improvement in the educational level and economic status of blacks. The proportion of Negro male college graduates almost doubled between 1962 and 1972—from 3.6 percent of all Negro men to 7.1 percent. Similarly, the proportion in professional, technical, or managerial positions (including proprietors) increased from 7 percent of all Negro men employed in 1959 to 13 percent in 1971. Gains seem to have been especially sharp —and recent—in large companies; the black man's proportion of all professional, technical, and managerial positions in firms with 100 or more employees virtually doubled between 1966 and 1970 —from 3.7 to 7.1 percent.

At the same time that medium-sized and large firms were stepping up their recruitment of black college graduates, charges of tokenism were being made. Instances were cited of men given high-sounding titles and high visibility but few and vaguely defined duties—something to do with public relations or community relations—or in those firms with black blue-collar workers—industrial relations. Cases were related of graduates of black colleges hired as accountants with the salaries of accountants but assigned to what were essentially clerical duties.

There were many variations on the theme, but the motif was always the same: Black college graduates were hired for window-dressing—to demonstrate to the Civil Rights Commission or to a Federal contract compliance officer that the firm was an "equal opportunity employer."

What actually did happen to the black male college graduate after he entered the white business firm? Was he really shunted into a corner where he could "do no harm" or was he assigned the same kind of job he would have been given if he were white? What about his chance of getting ahead? What salary increases did he receive, and how far did he go? Above all, how did his progress compare with that of a white of similar background and ability?

Some answers to these and similar questions may be found in a study [1] done by Recruiting Management Consultants, Inc. (RMC), under contract with the Manpower Administration. RMC surveyed 500 black men employed in private industry in 10 major cities throughout the country. All but 16 were college graduates, and 28 percent held graduate degrees. Three of five had majored in business administration, science, engineering, or law. The majority were young—almost two-thirds were under 35—and the group had an average of 6.5 years of experience in private industry.

[1] The full report, ***A Study of Black Male Professionals in Industry***, is available from the National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Va. 22151 for $6.00 for a paper copy and 95 cents for microfiche. Please specify accession number PB 218832 and enclose payment. This article is taken from a Manpower Administration monograph on the study. The monograph is available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 for 50 cents. Please specify Manpower Research Monograph No. 26 and enclose payment.

Chart 1.
Salary Range

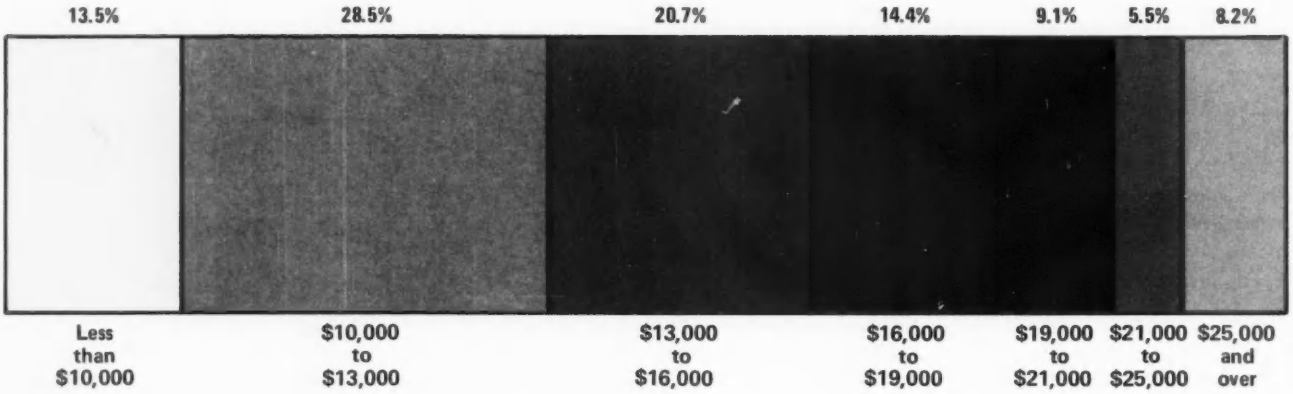
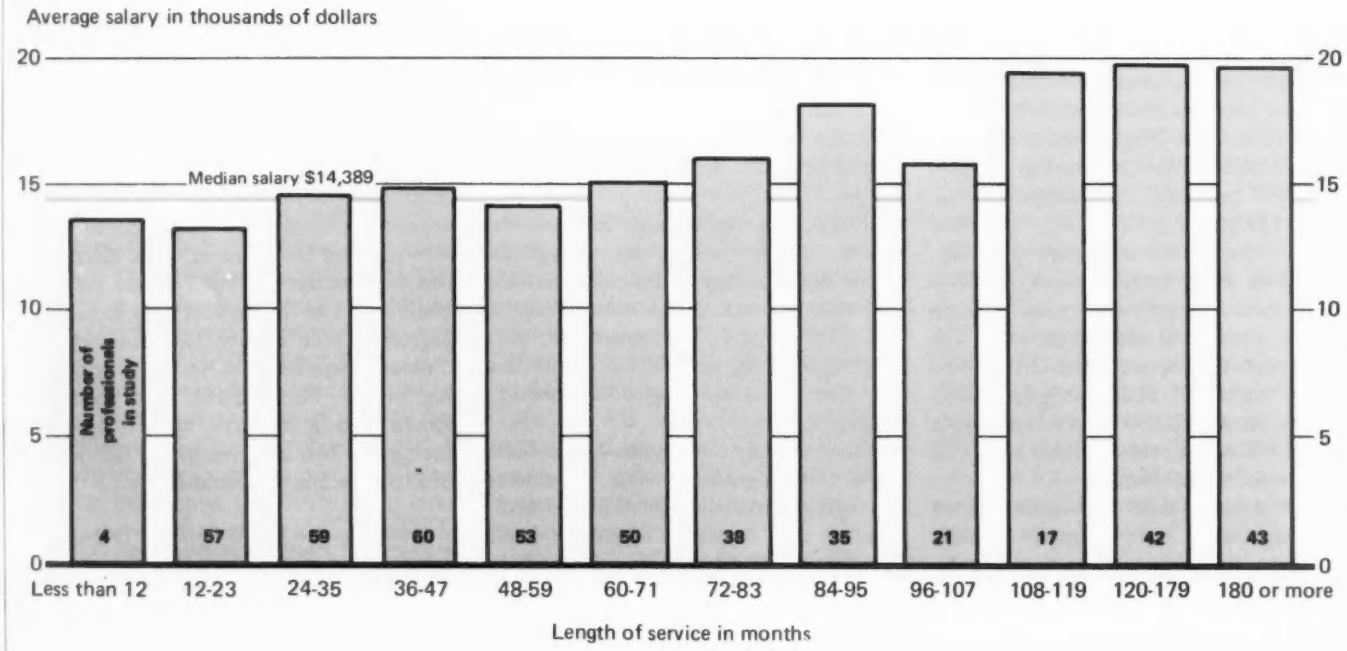


Chart 2.
Salary by Length of Service With Company



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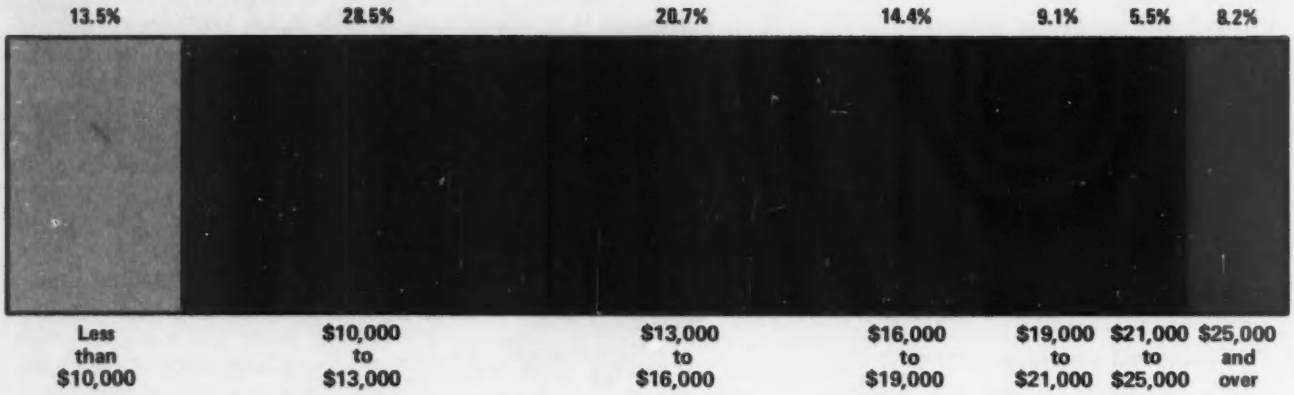

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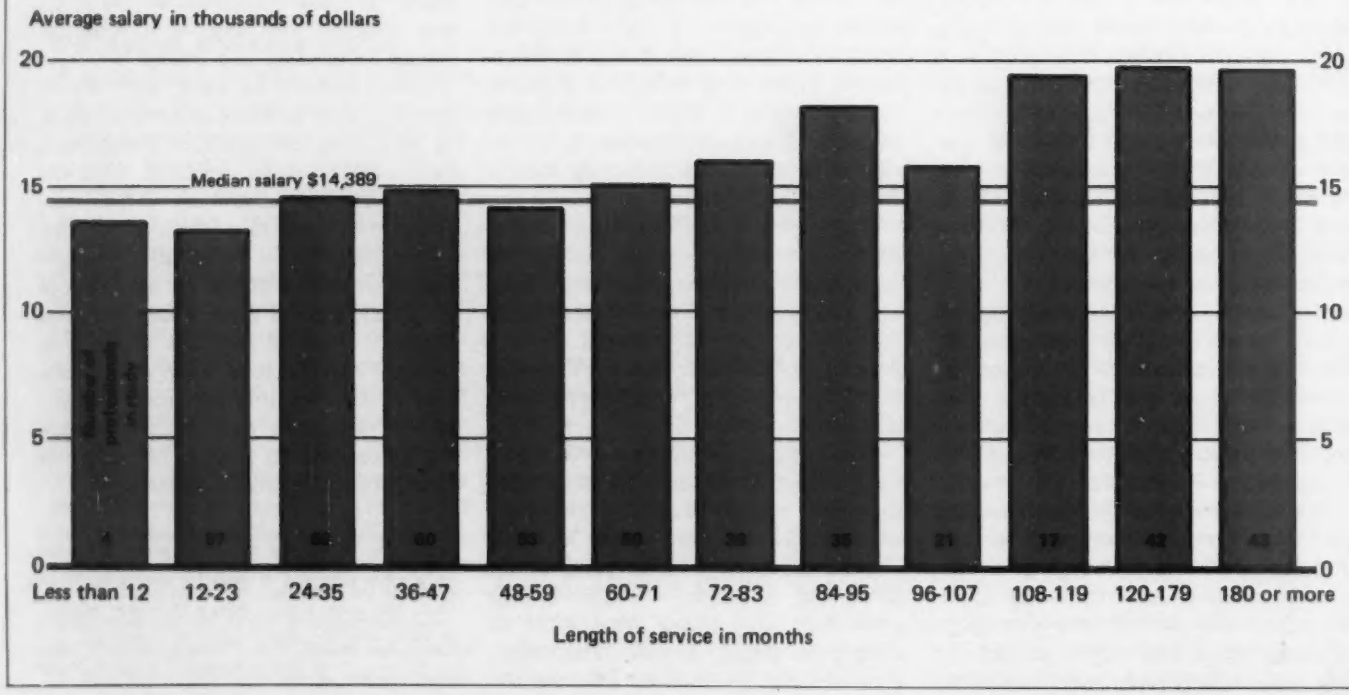


A wide variety of industries and business activities was represented among those surveyed. The largest group, close to 40 percent, were engaged in a service at the corporate level—in such activities as personnel, legal services, industrial relations, and public relations. Relatively few, 27 percent, held supervisory or managerial posts.

There was a wide range of salaries among the respondents at the time of the survey (the summer of 1971)—from under $10,000 to over $25,000 (see chart 1). The median was $14,389. Despite differences in degree levels and fields of specialization, there was a fairly close relation between length of service and salary (see chart 2). The lowest average salaries were reported by those with less than 2 years of service and the highest by those who had been with a firm 9 years or longer. But limits to advancement seemed to come rather early in the men's careers. This judgment stems from the fact that men with 15 years or more with a firm were earning about the same as those with 9 to 10 years of service.

These figures must be read with some caution, however, due to both the high salaries involved and the possibility that the averages may conceal differences in levels of education and fields of specialization. Nevertheless, the data do suggest that there is an effective ceiling on black advancement in business, together with a limit on the kinds of jobs for which blacks are accepted.

It is clear from the foregoing that the respondents earned relatively high salaries and experienced considerable stability in employment. The question remains as to how well they fared compared with similar whites. Ideally, this question would be answered by comparing career progress and job satisfaction of the black respondents with whites of similar background. But the study reports only the black respondents' experience and their assessment of it.

The men were not specifically asked if they liked their work, but interview questions on sequence of positions held, whether their work was challenging and in keeping with their abilities, and future job desires and prospects with the firm did measure job satisfaction indirectly. Slightly more than half of the respondents found their work challenging and their responsibilities equal to their abilities. The same proportion were satisfied with the sequence of their positions. On the other hand, a substantial minority were dissatisfied with their career progress or their responsibilities.

About a fifth of the respondents did not know whether their near-term career goals would be met within the companies which employed them at the time of the survey, and over a fourth had not decided whether they wished to remain with these firms. However, the proportion who expected to achieve their near-term career goals within these firms or planned to remain with them was surprisingly high —about 45 percent.

There was a positive correlation between the level of a position (technical specialist, manager of workers, manager of managers) and satisfaction with both progress in the firm and level of responsibility. To some extent, of course, rank and satisfaction with career progress measure the same thing. Presumably the higher positions are themselves measures of progress and normally carry with them more responsibility.

Lawyers Most Satisfied

Although many studies have found that engineers and scientists are often dissatisfied in private industry, the engineers and scientists in this survey were about as satisfied with their progress in their firms as were the other degree holders. But the lawyers were significantly different from the other respondents: Three-fourths of them as opposed to slightly more than half of all degree holders were satisfied with their promotions—possibly because lawyers in private industry are usually well paid and have well-defined duties.

Salary, by itself, however, is not necessarily an indication of satisfaction. The proportion who were satisfied with their progress did not differ appreciably by salary.

Whatever dissatisfactions these black professionals may have had with their job and salary progress, about two-thirds thought they had fared as well as or better than the whites in their departments with similar education, ability, and experience. About one-third of the men reported less progress than comparable whites in their departments, close to half equal progress, and about one-fifth more progress. These proportions should be evaluated in light of the fact that more than 9 of every 10 blacks felt their qualifications were equal or superior to those of their white counterparts.

Although a relatively high proportion of men felt that their progress had been at least equal to that of comparable whites, the majority of respondents (59 percent) thought they did not have equal opportunity with whites in their firm. Almost two-thirds also thought that company policies and programs for equal employment opportunity for blacks were ineffective. The respondents were not specifically asked why they felt as they did, but some of their comments are illuminating:

> Blacks are not in the mainstream of management. We . . . are in few, if any, decisionmaking positions. Blacks are mainly collectors and organizers of information. The concept of working your way up is futile for blacks.

> There is no mobility for blacks in industry. Can't make the move from a supervisory position to a management position.

> From what I've seen, most corporations have passed the point of letting blacks in the door at the bottom level. The problem now is upward mobility. Blacks meet more resistance the higher up they go. Blacks need the opportunity to fail as well as to succeed without the pressures of knowing the doors will close if one of them does get a chance and fails.

Although there may have been a degree of unfounded pessimism in the belief of many of the men that chances for further advancement were poor, the position seems to be confirmed by previously cited study findings on the tendency of salaries to reach a plateau at about the ninth year of service, and the very small proportion of the respondents in supervisory and managerial positions.

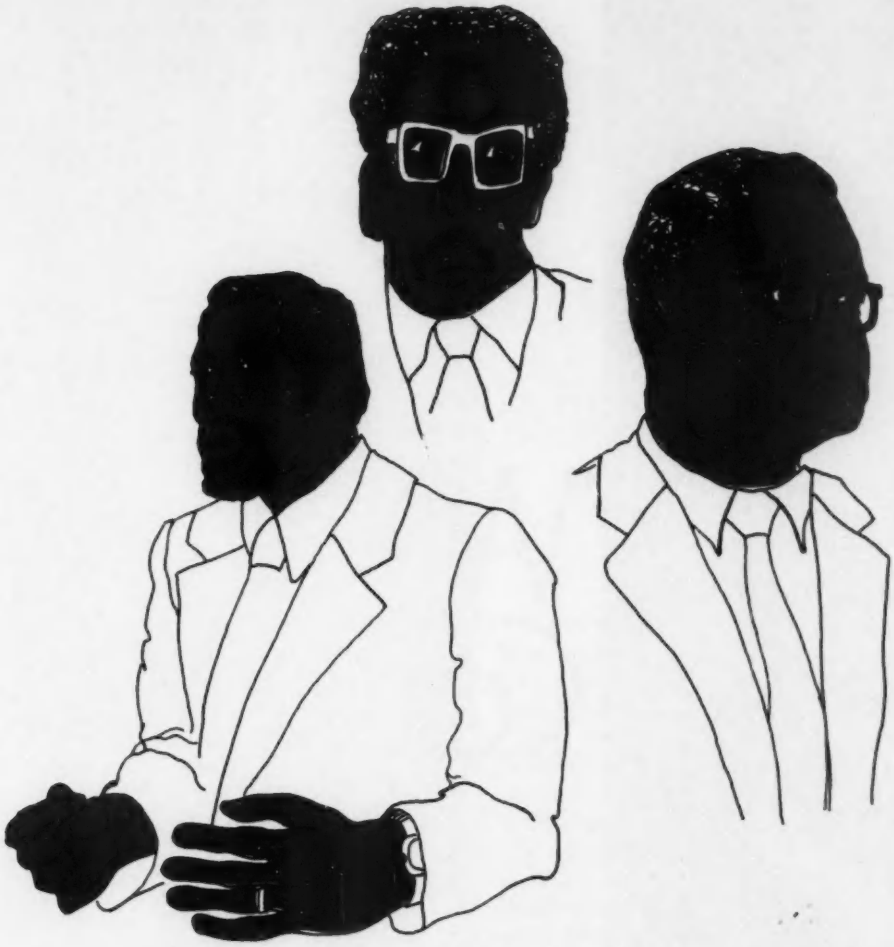
Not surprisingly, respondents who held supervisory or managerial positions tended to view opportunity for blacks in their firms more positively than did those who did not hold such positions. Fifty-six percent of the black managers in the survey felt their firms offered blacks equality of opportunity, compared with 30 percent of the supervisors and 22 percent of the technical specialists.

For many people, relations with fellow employees are an important source of satisfaction on the job. Acceptance by coworkers offers psychological support; recognition by a superior is an indication of achievement; cooperation of subordinates is necessary for accomplishment. For blacks, who have only recently entered the managerial ranks of business and whose footing there is still insecure, these relationships can be crucial. There is considerable self-consciousness on the part of both races in these encounters, and the blacks must smoothe the way. Advancement often implies skill in interpersonal relations, and the ability to get along with strategically located whites may be even more important for black professionals than job performance.

The surveyed men had considerable contact with whites, although generally not those with whom they worked. Well over half of the group attended "white colleges" or graduate schools. The majority also lived in more or less integrated neighborhoods though not in the suburbs. And over 50 percent reported that five or more times during the year before the interview they had entertained whites in their homes or visited whites in their homes. Only 13 percent had neither received whites in their homes nor been invited to white homes.

Race Relations Studied

More than three-fifths felt that their relations with white superiors, coworkers, and subordinates were good or excellent. Relationships with white coworkers varied directly with salary, age (which to some extent coincides with salary), and the extent of social contacts with whites. The higher salaried men, the older men, and those with frequent social contacts with whites in the year before the survey were most likely to report good or excellent relations with white coworkers. Less than 40 percent of the men earning under $10,000 a year felt their relations with white coworkers were good or excellent



compared with 85 percent of those with salaries of $25,000 or more.

Similarly, about half of the respondents reporting less than three personal, social contacts with whites also reported good or excellent relations with whites, compared with more than 7 out of 10 of the men who had 13 or more such contacts. Though these relations are clear, the direction of the causation is not. It is possible that ease in dealing with whites contributes to a black professional's success. But it is equally possible that a good job smoothes the way for a black man in relations with whites, both on and off the job.

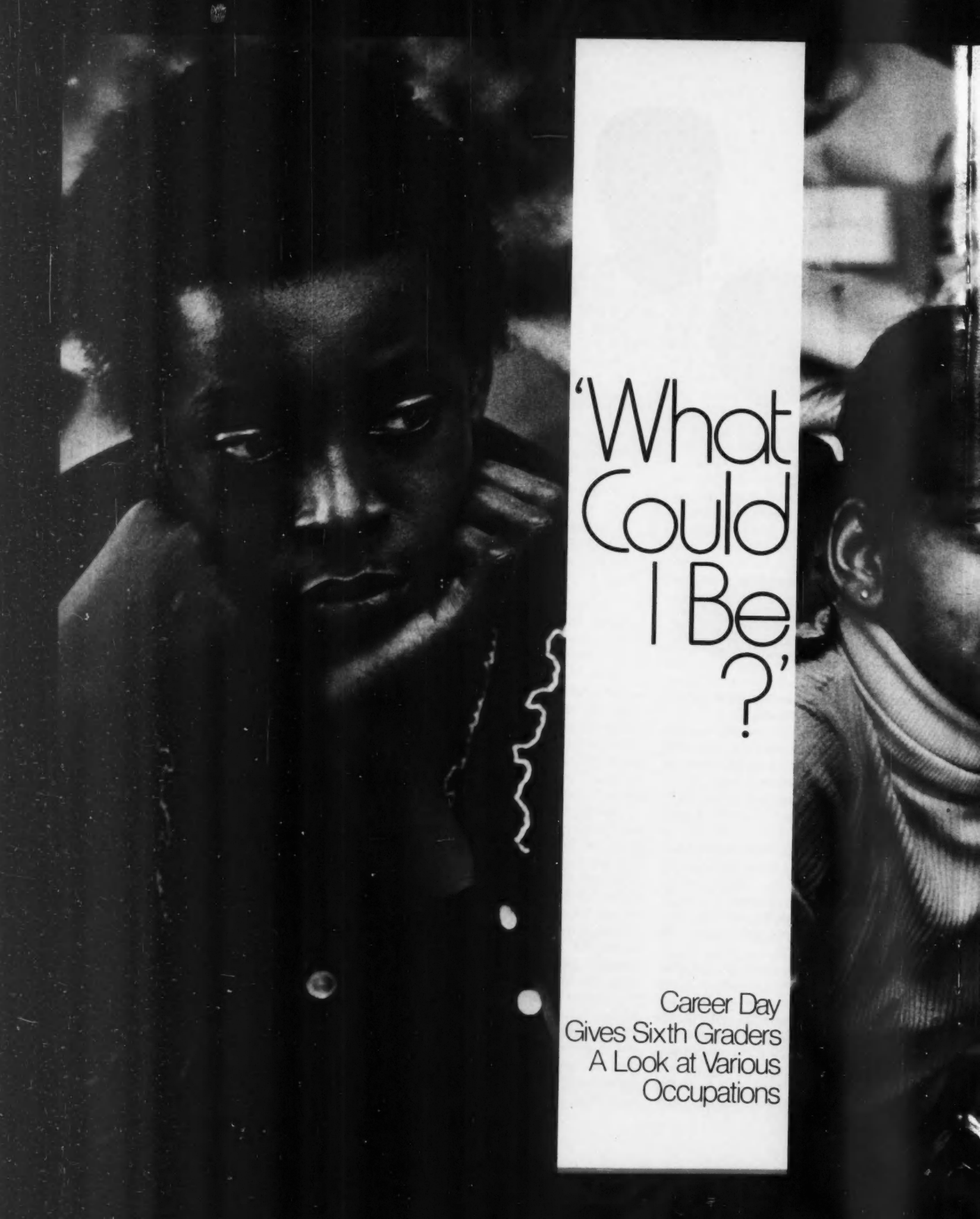
The research plan called for 100 interviews with the white superiors to whom the black respondents reported. No superior was to be contacted without the specific approval of the respondents concerned. Although 230 black participants in the survey agreed to have their immediate superiors interviewed, only 61 usable interviews were secured. Letters were written to all 230, and 85 replied affirmatively, but some of these were not free during the period scheduled for interviewing in their cities, others canceled appointments, and a few interviews were contaminated by the presence of another official of the corporation.

Clearly, then, the managers who were interviewed were a select group. And the interviews showed that they were a group with a favorable view of the blacks they supervised. Perhaps managers less friendly to their black subordinates did not choose to participate in the survey.

Most of the interviewed managers were department heads in service areas, for example, purchasing or industrial relations. The black men in the study whom they supervised were promoted from within the company, and 90 percent of the managers thought these employees met or exceeded the standards for promotion. Similarly, 80 percent rated the work performance of these black subordinates as good or excellent, and about 75 percent thought that these subordinates had high potential for further advancement within the company.

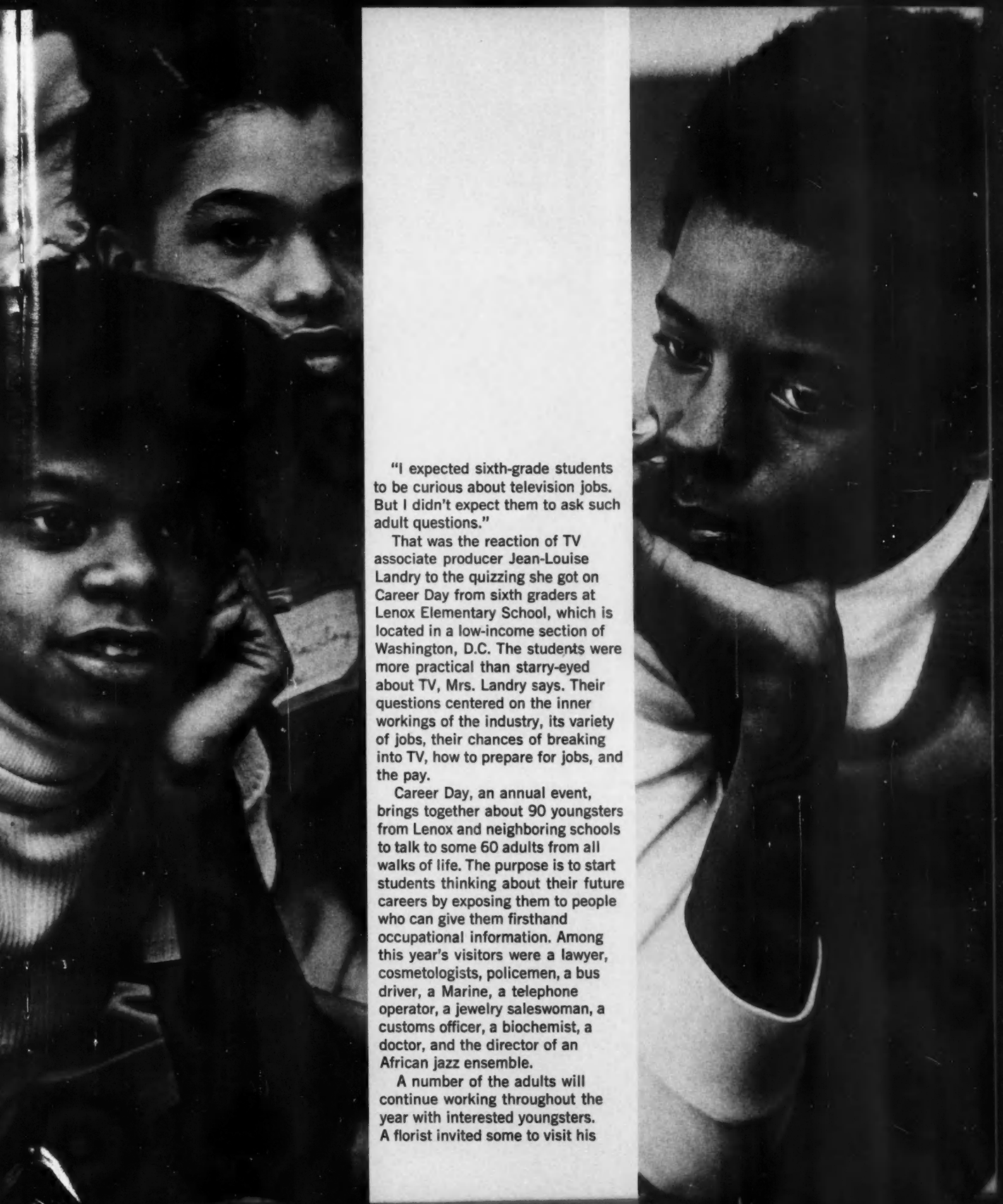
The warm view held by the white managers of their black subordinates was reciprocated. Good or excellent relations with their superiors were reported by 77 percent of the blacks whose supervisors were interviewed, compared with 69 percent for all respondents. However, when questioned about the effectiveness of their firms' equal employment opportunity policies, blacks whose supervisors were interviewed shared the skepticism of the group of black professionals as a whole. Most of the managers interviewed tended to believe that company equal employment opportunity policies were effective, most blacks did not.

This divergence in the attitudes of management and black workers cannot be overlooked. It indicates that business corporations have not convinced their black professionals—at least those in this study—that equal opportunity exists. □



"What Could I Be?"

Career Day Gives Sixth Graders A Look at Various Occupations



"I expected sixth-grade students to be curious about television jobs. But I didn't expect them to ask such adult questions."

That was the reaction of TV associate producer Jean-Louise Landry to the quizzing she got on Career Day from sixth graders at Lenox Elementary School, which is located in a low-income section of Washington, D.C. The students were more practical than starry-eyed about TV, Mrs. Landry says. Their questions centered on the inner workings of the industry, its variety of jobs, their chances of breaking into TV, how to prepare for jobs, and the pay.

Career Day, an annual event, brings together about 90 youngsters from Lenox and neighboring schools to talk to some 60 adults from all walks of life. The purpose is to start students thinking about their future careers by exposing them to people who can give them firsthand occupational information. Among this year's visitors were a lawyer, cosmetologists, policemen, a bus driver, a Marine, a telephone operator, a jewelry saleswoman, a customs officer, a biochemist, a doctor, and the director of an African jazz ensemble.

A number of the adults will continue working throughout the year with interested youngsters. A florist invited some to visit his

'What Could I Be ?'

continued

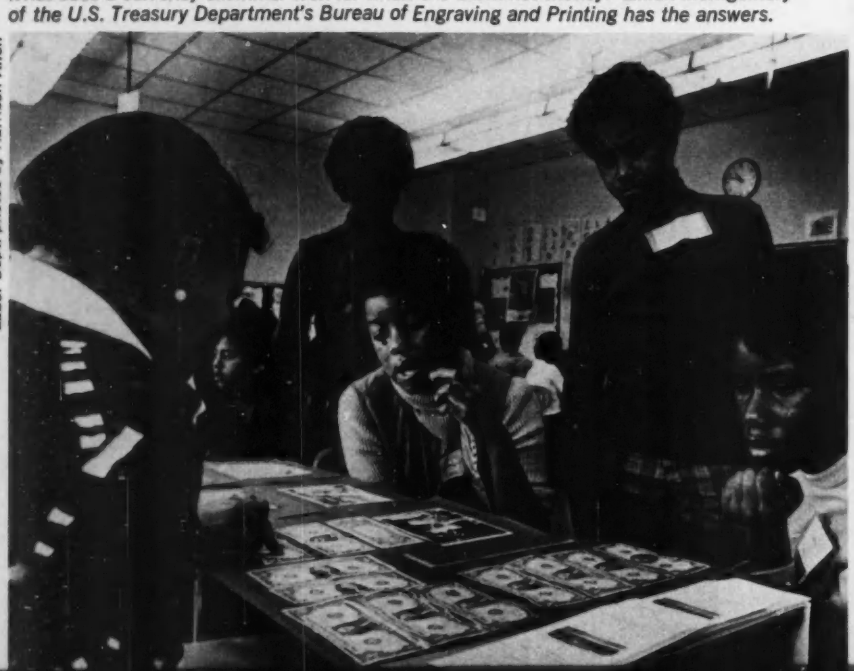
store, and a pet shop owner will show students his recordkeeping as well as his animals. George Leftwich, assistant basketball coach at Georgetown University, plans to bring some of his players to Lenox to demonstrate their skills, in addition to giving Lenox youngsters tickets to Georgetown games. Mrs. Landry is going to take 10 budding television workers to visit the Federal City College communication

Officers Robert Pratt (left), school patrol coordinator for the police department, and James Thomas, the first black in the District of Columbia mounted police, tell students what it's like to be on the force.

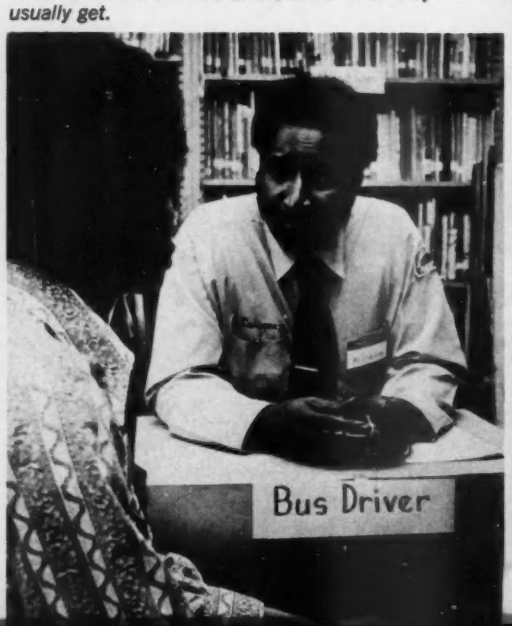
Anita Austin, a physician in private practice, helps a student use a stethoscope.

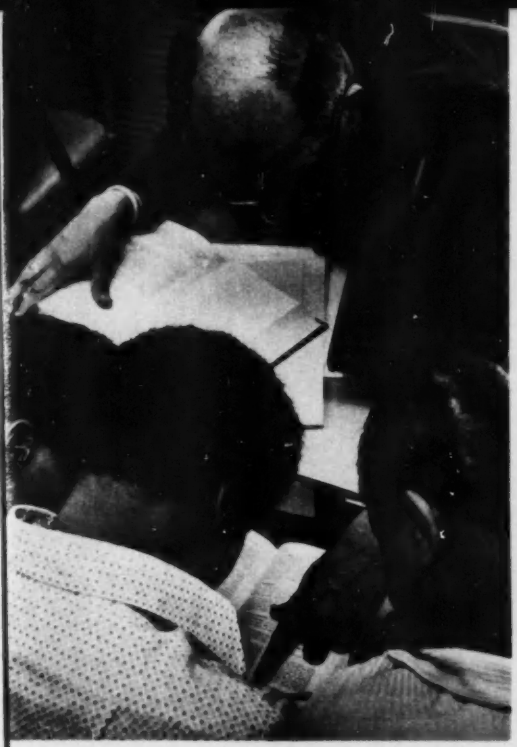
What does a currency examiner look for when she examines money? Lillian Montgomery of the U.S. Treasury Department's Bureau of Engraving and Printing has the answers.

Labor Dept. photos by Harrison Allen



Their conversations with Robert Coleman, a bus driver for the District of Columbia's public schools, give students a different view of the driver than they usually get.





Youngsters get a lesson in looking up legal information from attorney Robert Ewell.

Dee Medert, a recruiter for the telephone company assures a sixth grade boy that men as well as women operate switchboards. The boy tries on earphones operators use.

arts department to learn more about the TV trades and courses they should take in secondary school.

Career Day is no stranger to U.S. education. However, the usual purpose is to bring together high school students and potential employers. Lenox school principal Jennie Gross is an advocate of sixth-grade career days, and she strongly supports her counselor's efforts to make these days a success. In part, this is because of her school's population. A number of the sixth graders are 13 years old and will soon start searching for summer jobs, she says. Moreover, many students are in families getting public assistance and have few other contacts with employed persons.

Mrs. Landry agrees that sixth grade is prime time for Career Day. "These youngsters should be giving serious thought right now to what they are going to do with their lives," the black, native Washingtonian says. "Then they won't miss out later on for lack of the right academic preparation." □

A youngster gets a close look at the white rat that biochemist Amy Lee used in her presentation.

"Every time any workman is out of employment, whether for a short period or a long period, we are thereby reducing the aggregate of production, and it is not only an injury to the man who is out of employment, but it is an injury to the entire community because the entire community must draw upon the aggregate of production."

William B. Wilson, first Secretary of Labor, testifying before the Joint Committees on Labor on bills to provide a National Employment System, June 20, 1919.

40 Years of Healing 'Community Injuries'

Early Debate Over Employment Service Echoed Contending Demands of Liberty and Order

by Timothy Larkin

New Zealand had a unified national public employment system in 1891, Norway and Sweden in 1906, Great Britain in 1909, the Union of South Africa in 1910, France in 1911, Argentina and Denmark in 1913, Germany in 1914, Hungary and the Netherlands in 1916 and Canada in 1918. To many informed persons, the need for a similar system in the United States seemed self-evident. As Secretary of Labor Wilson put it in his 1919 testimony:

"There has heretofore been no system or method of clearing information concerning opportunities for employment. Even in our rural communities, where everybody knows everybody else and everybody else's business, it is frequently the case that a farmer needs a farmhand, someone to help harvest his crops, a mechanic or a common laborer, and that some workman capable of doing any of these classes of labor is out of employment within easy reach; and yet the two have no means of getting into contact with each other to mutual advantage.

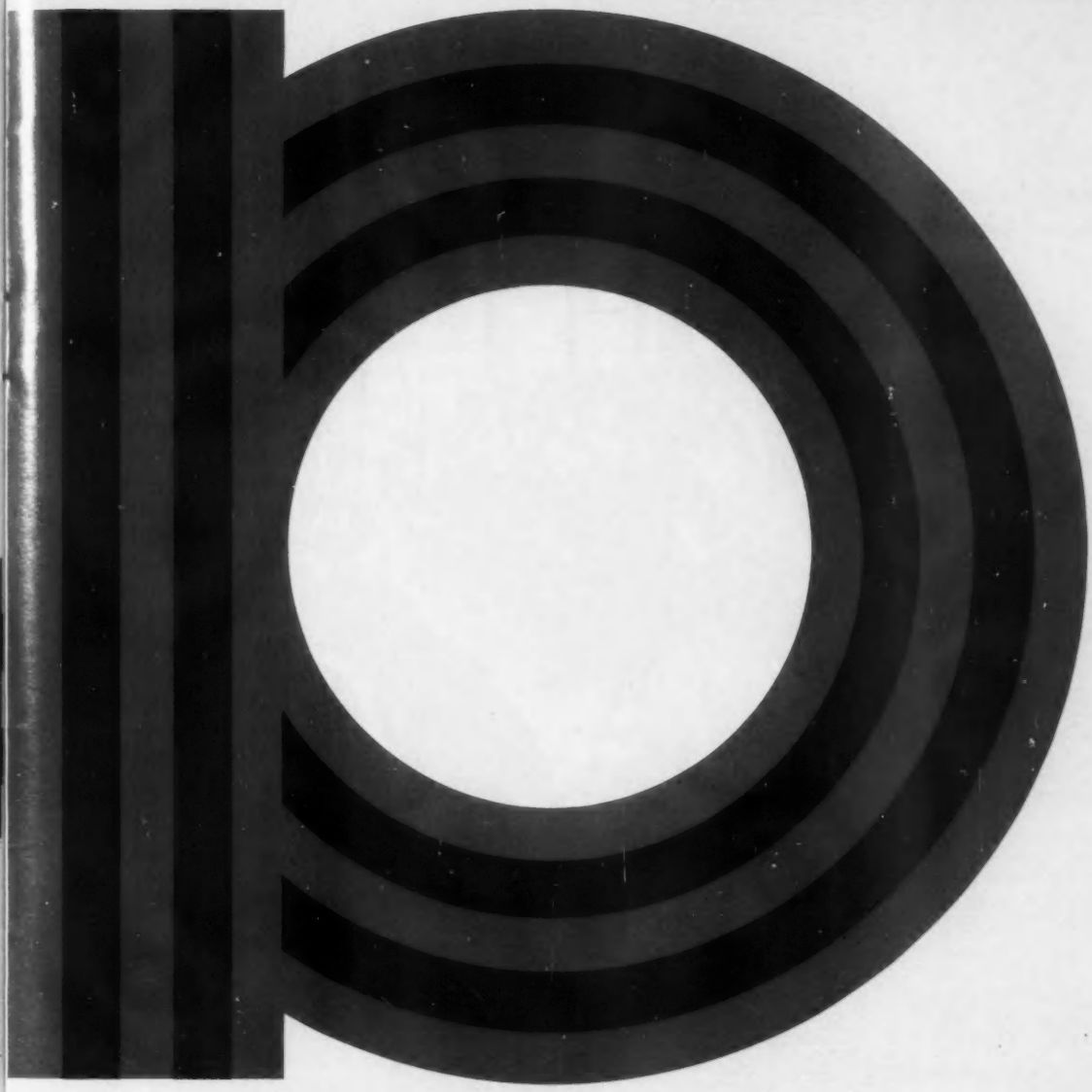
"What is true of the rural communities on a small scale is intensively true of the large industrial centers . . . : Men are out of employment, qualified to do certain classes of work, and employers are in need of that class of work, yet the two are unable to get together through lack of a common clearinghouse; and whenever that is the case, and it is continually the case somewhere, there is a reduction in the aggregate of production, which is injurious to the community."

To help reduce this continuous series of community injuries, the Secretary of Labor and others advocated a national employment service system. However, it was not until June 6, 1933, 14 years later, that President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed the Wagner-Peyser Act and the United States finally gained an instrument to deal with this problem.

Why did the United States, for decades the foremost industrial nation in the world, refuse in 1919 to build an integrated system of public employment services, and why did it lag so far behind other nations?

The debate on the "bill that failed"—the 1919 Kenyon-Nolan bill to establish a national public employment service—provides many of the answers. The extensive hearings provide

Timothy Larkin is a member of the Manpower Administration information staff.



an excellent view not only of ephemeral considerations and objections outmoded by the passage of time, but also of more deepseated and continuing strains within the American character and attitude that helped shape the development of the employment service after 1933 and which, to some degree, still operate and must be considered in designing any national manpower policy.

The arguments by proponents and opponents of a "National Employment System" seemingly involved only questions of extending the limited public employment service established on an emergency basis during World War I, which, in turn, had its roots in a Federal office to provide job information to immigrants arriving in New York City. But the real debate in establishing the service revolved about a question that is as old as the Union itself: The resolution of the contending demands of liberty and order.

Those moved by the logic of order as well as by humanitarian considerations pointed to the manifold advantages of some reasoned way of bringing job and worker together, and to the obvious fact that a national economy could not be well served by the existing haphazard and partial collection of local and State employment services, some relatively well organized, such as those of Illinois, New Jersey, New York, and Ohio; some mere paper phantoms. Proponents of a true national public employment service system could also point to the record. For despite some failures and some weaknesses in management, the temporary, emergency system had served the Nation exceptionally well during the World War I mobilization and, if allowed to continue, held promise of doing equally as well during the subsequent change from a wartime to a peacetime economy.

The hearings on the question of whether the Nation should have an employment service provide one of those fascinating moments in the unfolding of the American system in which the proponents of the individual and his freedom of choice were arguing in favor of increased order; and the proponents of orderly control over all the factors of production (including an assurance of an abundant supply of immobile, low-cost labor) were arguing against any increase in order.

Though some of the arguments presented by witnesses

Women immigrants seeking jobs shortly before the turn of the century wait in the "sitting room" of New York City's New Labor Employment Bureau. The bureau was under the direction of the Commissioners of Charities and Correction. The signs on the wall apparently list the types of jobs available to the women—scrubber, waitress, chambermaid, nurse.

Immigrants arriving in New York in the second half of the 19th century often got their initial information on jobs at a labor exhcange set up by the city at Castle Garden.

Down through the years employment service personnel often have had to operate from some pretty makeshift quarters. In 1948 this was the temporary location of the Greensboro office of the North Carolina Employment Security Commission.

opposed to a permanent public employment service system now seem rather extreme the main thrust of the opposition was that what was being proposed in the guise of a better way to operate the labor market was actually a means of curtailing the freedom of choice of American enterprise and of limiting the scope of State government by greatly increasing the power of the Federal Government.

The most extreme exposition of this fear of loss of liberty through central government aggrandizement was expressed by a witness who saw in the director general of the U.S. Employment Service (USES) a potential colossus who, by controlling the labor supply valve, could reward complaisant companies and chastize others. By turning the valve in favor of those espousing a particular political ideology, the witness claimed, the person in charge of a national employment service ". . . could elect a President of the United States in 2 years. . . ."

Other opponents saw the Employment Service as a tool by which labor could use the power of the Federal Government to produce unionization of American industry. James A. Emery, a spokesman for the National Association of Manufacturers, feared that a national employment service would not stand neutral in any dispute between capital and labor. He believed it would favor strikers by shutting off the supply of workers (and strikebreakers) and so deprive ". . . any employer of any service of the Federal Employment Agency in time of a strike."

Threat to State Powers Seen

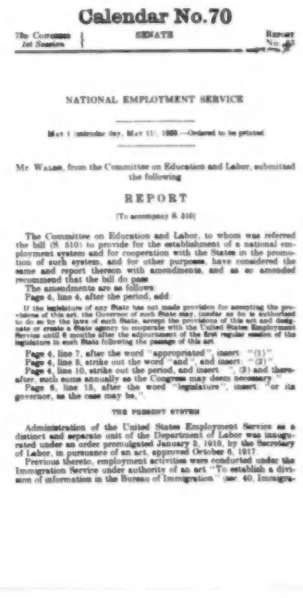
Still others saw in the proposal a way of destroying the balance of power between States and Central Government. "Heretofore, it has been recognized and accepted that the various States had complete domination over their purely domestic matters," stated an opposition witness. "No greater interference with State affairs could be considered than this character of activity," he contended.

E. A. Colvin, a spokesman for the Association of Farmers Unions of the Cotton States, pointed out that an employment service " . . . has the tendency to make the State not rely upon itself and look for the other government, and there is entirely too much running to the Federal Government by those States. This reaching out into the States is fraught with politics and has political significance. It is building a great machine, which, to my mind—I may be wrong—looks too much like patterning after the German and Kaiser means."

Many reasonable persons agreed with this view, feeling that the necessities of the war effort had resulted in an unhealthy expansion of the Central Government. John B. Densmore, director general of the Employment Service, referred to this in his testimony. "The vast organization and the vital necessity during the war of taking charge exclusively on the part of the Government of the recruiting of labor," he said, "put certain restrictions on the manufacturers. They objected to that. They did not voice or protest, patriotically, during the war." But with the war over, such restrictions were viewed as intolerable, and spokesmen for major industrial groups let the Congress know of their desire for "normalcy."

Fear of the interference of big government continued right up to the signing of the Wagner-Peyser Act—and beyond.

Key documents in passage of the Wagner-Peyser Act establishing a Federal-State permanent employment service system: The report (right) of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor recommending passage of Senator Wagner's bill; published hearings (below left) before the House Committee on Labor on Representative Peyser's bill; and the report of the House Committee recommending passage of the Peyser bill.

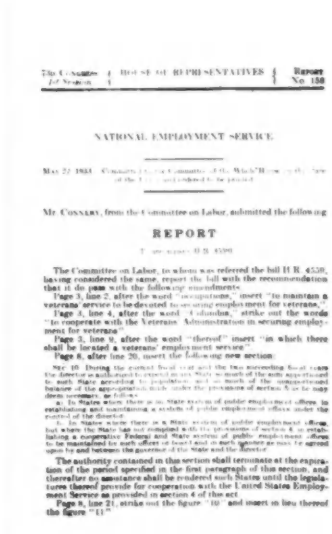


Calendar No. 70

SENATE

NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

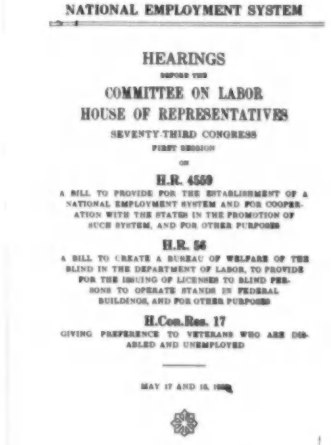
REPORT



HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

REPORT



NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SYSTEM

HEARINGS

BEFORE THE

COMMITTEE ON LABOR

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

SEVENTY-THIRD CONGRESS

FIRST SESSION

ON

H.R. 4559

A BILL TO PROVIDE FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SYSTEM AND FOR COOPERATION WITH THE STATES IN THE PROMOTION OF SUCH SYSTEM, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES

H.R. 56

A BILL TO CREATE A BUREAU OF WELFARE OF THE BLIND IN THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, TO PROVIDE FOR THE ISSUING OF LICENSES TO BLIND PERSONS TO OPERATE STANDS IN FEDERAL BUILDINGS, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES

H.Con.Res. 17

GIVING PREFERENCE TO VETERANS WHO ARE DISABLED AND UNEMPLOYED

MAY 17 AND 18, 1933

UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON

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Calendar No. 70

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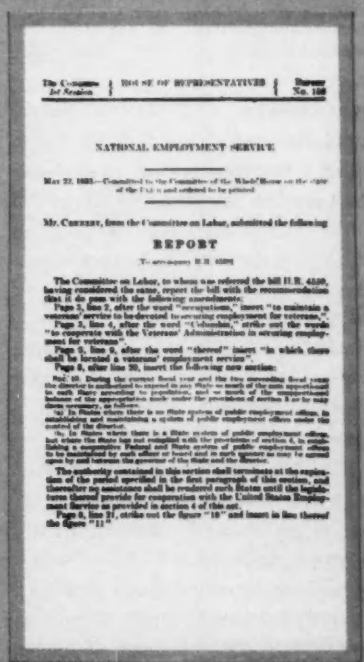
REPORT



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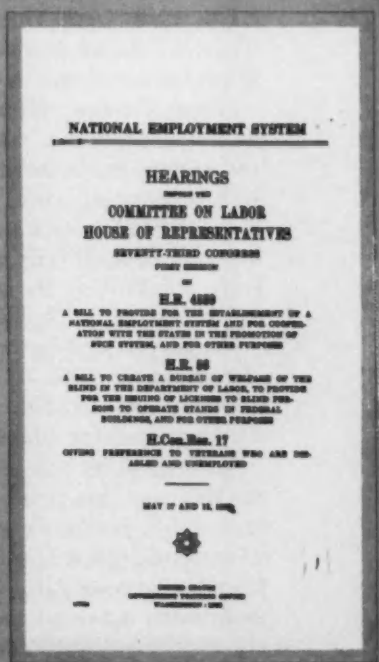
REPORT



NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SYSTEM

HEARINGS

COMMITTEE ON LABOR
HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES
SEVENTY-THIRD CONGRESS

H.R. 4659

A BILL TO PROVIDE FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SYSTEM AND FOR COOPERATION WITH THE STATES IN THE PROMOTION OF SUCH SYSTEM, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES

H.R. 66

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H.Con.Res. 17

GIVING PREFERENCE TO VETERANS WHO ARE DISABLED AND UNEMPLOYED

Indeed, as late as 1964 an article in a national magazine characterized the U.S. Employment Service as reaching out to assure that " . . . every working man and woman in America will one day be forced to seek work through Government employment offices." Such a power grab, the author claimed, ". . . if permitted to continue . . . can only result in absolute control of American manpower and its allocation. The surrender of our free enterprise system will be complete."

Given this almost visceral fear of Government domination through control of the labor supply, how then did the Nation finally come to accept a coordinated Federal-State system in 1933? And how did it come to accept an increasingly more active employment service in subsequent years?

The answer to the first question can be found in a paraphrase of a comment made by Grover Cleveland many years earlier in another context. For in 1933 the United States was no longer permitted the luxury of deciding public issues on the basis of theory. The Nation was facing an urgent and deteriorating condition. That condition consisted of massive, unprecedented, fearful—and continually growing—unemployment. In 1929 the average number of unemployed was estimated at 1.5 million. A year later the figure had mounted to 4.3 million. Within another year that total had almost doubled. In 1932, 12 million persons were looking vainly for work. And by 1933 fully 23 percent of the civilian work force was unemployed.

The fear of the potential malevolence of big government was submerged in the common fear of the reality of social, political, and economic chaos. The crisis, as Franklin D. Roosevelt put it in his First Inaugural, required Congress to grant " . . . broad executive power to wage a war against the emergency as great as the power that would be given me if we were in fact invaded by a foreign foe."

If the Nation is to advance, he said, " . . . we must move as a trained and loyal army willing to sacrifice for the good of a common discipline, because without such discipline, no progress is made. . . ." Thus, to cure an acute disorder in our system of freedom of choice, Government moved to make the system less disorderly.

Among the new institutions designed to serve job-seekers and employers was a National Reemployment Service which was followed by the creation of a vigorous system of Federal-State employment service cooperation as originally envisaged in the 1919 Kenyon-Nolan bill (which itself was modeled on the system adopted in Canada a year earlier), and as contained in the act that bore the names of Senator Robert F. Wagner and Representative Theodore A. Peyser.

The act provided for the financing of a Federal-State system of employment offices, including employment counseling and placement aid for handicapped persons, veterans, and a division specializing in farm labor.

Referring to the new law, Senator Wagner pointed out that this was more than merely another emergency measure. "It is, of course, a part of the general problem of recovery, in the sense that the opportunity for employment must first be found," he said. "But beyond that we have an equally difficult problem, the intensely individual, the deeply human problem, of guiding a man to a job wherein he can exercise the most of native endowment and derive the maximum of happiness for himself and family."

But if the employment service owes its nativity to a grave national crisis, to what does it owe its survival once the crisis had passed?

To that question there are four basic answers. First, the USES was designed in accordance with, rather than in opposition to, the realities of the Federal system; second, there were additional crises that underlined the need for a nationwide system; third, the employment service became the foundation for an increasingly more effective system of manpower services; and, finally, the system silenced the objections raised by critics by operating in a manner that succeeded in preserving and advancing both freedom and order.

When the Wagner-Peyser Act became law in June 1933, Senator Wagner made it clear that the system it created was designed not to obscure the issue of Federal-State conflict but to deal with it realistically. "The principal question that must be answered," he said, "in the nationwide employment service is this: What shall be the relation between the Federal Government and the States in the conduct of such a service?

"The Federal Government alone cannot perform the entire task. Many of the employment problems are local, requiring for their solution a knowledge of local conditions. At the same time it is entirely clear that the State cannot, acting individually, provide for the interstate placements of workers. Obviously, we do not desire to have the Federal Government duplicate the work of the States. Plainly, we do not want the Federal Government to compete with the States."

Strong Partnership Created

The problem of how to avoid duplication, domination, and competition was squarely addressed in the Wagner-Peyser Act. Following the pattern of the earlier Kenyon-Nolan bill, the Wagner-Peyser Act specified that the employment service would operate through the allocation of grants-in-aid to cooperating States. The result has been the creation of an increasingly strong Federal-State partnership. There is at present a small Federal staff and over 31,000 budgeted positions in about 2,400 local offices in agencies that are financed entirely by the Federal Government.

As with almost all partnerships, there often has been some tension between the two parties, based on the States not unnaturally believing that they are in a better position to understand and respond to local needs, and with the Federal Government pointing to the necessity of adhering to emerging national priorities such as the policy of equal employment opportunity and veterans preference, not only for clients, but within the State employment office staffs as well.

The first challenge faced in the early thirties by the new United States Employment Service was helping to place millions of unemployed into public as well as private employment. Then, with the outset of World War II, the problem shifted to one of dealing with labor shortage rather than labor surplus, and of finding ways to man war industries while maintaining the flow of labor to essential civilian activities.

Since World War II the service has had to respond to the manpower implications of the Korean and Vietnam conflicts,

William B. Wilson, the first Secretary of Labor, called for a national employment service system in 1919, but the legislation he supported was not enacted.

NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SYSTEM

HEARINGS

BEFORE THE

JOINT COMMITTEES ON LABOR
CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES

SIXTY-SIXTH CONGRESS

FIRST SESSION

ON

S. 688

A BILL TO PROVIDE FOR A NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SYSTEM

S. 1442

A BILL TO PROVIDE FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SYSTEM AND FOR COOPERATION WITH THE STATES IN THE PROMOTION OF SUCH SYSTEM, AND TO REGULATE THE EXPENDITURE OF MONEYS THAT SHALL BE APPROPRIATED FOR SUCH PURPOSES

H. R. 4305

A BILL TO PROVIDE FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SYSTEM AND FOR COOPERATION WITH THE STATES IN THE PROMOTION OF SUCH SYSTEM, AND TO REGULATE THE EXPENDITURE OF MONEYS THAT SHALL BE APPROPRIATED FOR SUCH PURPOSES

PART 1.

Printed for the use of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1919

These documents attest to the interest and controversy aroused by early proposals to create a national employment service system. A joint Senate-House committee held hearings (left) in 1919 on the Kenyon-Nolan bill "to provide for a national employment system," and in 1920 the House Committee on Labor filed a report (right) recommending passage of legislation to establish a National Employment Bureau. The legislation was not enacted, however.

66TH CONGRESS, 2d Session. } HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES. { REPORT No. 999.

TO ESTABLISH A NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAU.

MAY 10, 1920.—Committed to the Committee of the Whole House on the state of the Union and ordered to be printed.

Mr. SMITH of Michigan, from the Committee on Labor, submitted the following

REPORT.

[To accompany H. R. 544.]

The Committee on Labor, to which was referred H. R. 544, reports the same back with the recommendation that it be amended as follows:

Page 1, section 1, line 7, strike out the figures "$6,000" and insert in place thereof the sum of "$5,000."

Page 1, section 1, line 10, after the word "law," change the period to a semicolon and add the following: "*Provided*, That no discrimination in employment or salary by reason of sex alone shall exist in connection with any officer or employee authorized by this act."

Page 1, section 1, line 12, after the word "Labor," add the following: "subject to the restrictions of section 2 hereof."

Page 2, section 1, line 8, after the word "formation," strike out the following: "on industrial conditions."

Page 2, section 1, line 7, after the word "*Provided*," add the word "*further*."

Page 2, section 1, line 8, after the word "and" insert the words "notices of," and in the same line after the word "for" strike out the word "employment" and insert the word "employees."

Page 2, section 1, line 10, after the word "done" change the period to a comma, and add the following: "which information shall be furnished to the applicant for employment."

Page 2, section 2, strike out entire section and substitute the following section in place thereof:

SEC. 2. That the bureau may only assist and cooperate with State labor exchanges where such exchanges are under State authority and comply with the rules and regulations prescribed by the bureau, and to this end the said bureau is authorized to contribute to the maintenance of said State exchanges a sum not greater than the sum appropriated and spent by the State for such purpose: *Provided, however*, That nothing in this act shall be construed to prevent the bureau from sending representatives to States not having exchanges receiving Federal aid for the purpose of securing employees.

The Committee on Labor has had numerous hearings in connection with the Senate Committee on Education and Labor. At which hearings consideration was had and arguments made on a number of bills, including S. 688, S. 1442, and H. R. 4305, all of which bills are published in the joint hearings had with the Senate committee, and from such hearings and arguments and consideration had, your committee begs leave to report H. R. 544, with the amendments thereto, and as so amended recommend its adoption.

During all these hearings certain modifications of the bills under consideration were suggested; the establishment of a Federal employ-

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6th Congress, 2d Session. } HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES. { Report No. 595.

TO ESTABLISH A NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAU.

May 15, 1920.—Committed to the Committee of the Whole House on the state of the Union and ordered to be printed.

Mr. Smith of Michigan, from the Committee on Labor, submitted the following

REPORT.

[To accompany H. R. 544.]

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During all these hearings certain modifications of the bills under consideration were suggested; the establishment of a Federal employ-

several short but intense recessions, a "second industrial revolution," and broadscale programs of human resource development and utilization. Each such recurring crisis—transition from peace to war, and from war to peace; of labor surplus or labor shortage; of inflationary skill demands; and of skills made obsolete by technological advance or changes in national policy—placed great demands on the resiliency and effectiveness of the employment service and helped shape its operations and demonstrate the continuing need for its existence.

Once the national employment system was firmly in place, it was possible to link it with other manpower programs and build additional manpower institutions upon it. The process began with the enactment of a program of unemployment insurance through the Social Security Act of 1935, which established a funding source of employers' payroll taxes for the employment service. The effect was a major expansion of the system, with many new offices opened throughout the Nation.

Manpower Training Functions Added

In the period between 1935 and 1962, in addition to providing job finding assistance for unemployment insurance claimants and providing a work test for the highly important unemployment insurance function, the USES concentrated on six areas: Counseling and testing for employment; providing specialized manpower service to young persons, older workers, veterans, and the handicapped; producing labor market information for workers, employers, training authorities, and others; specialized service aiding employers to fill job openings; information to employers and labor organizations in the proper use of such employment service selection techniques and tools as job analysis and testing for proficiency or aptitude, and matching jobseekers with jobs; and seeking to develop a national labor market through interarea recruitment.

Then, beginning with the passage of the landmark Manpower Development and Training Act in 1962, the employment service began a major acceleration in its transition from a labor exchange to providing a broader range of manpower programs. With the new manpower act, the State employment service agencies for the first time had funded programs with which to provide vocational training and on-the-job training services to disadvantaged workers, to those out of school, and to the unemployed requiring new or refurbished skills. Under this act, the employment service undertook the additional responsibility of identifying training needs of unemployed and underemployed workers, of selecting jobseekers for referral to training programs, and placing program graduates in jobs.

Between 1962 and the present the employment service has been asked to shoulder a number of new responsibilities, some fairly limited, others major and without precedent. For example, with the Economic Opportunity Act, the employment service was called upon to respond to the urgencies of social as well as economic goals. The revised Work Incentive Program and the requirement that food stamp recipients register for work brought the employment service squarely into the problem of welfare. The service also was given responsibility for workers displaced as a result of changing national priorities (such as special efforts in behalf of unemployed aerospace scientists, engineers, and technicians), or as a result of unemployment emergencies (such as referral under the Emergency Employment Act that provides between 150,000 and 200,000 public service jobs).

In addition, the service helps guard against discrimination in job referrals due to age, race, color, or national origin; provides rehabilitation certificates for servicemen dismissed with a less than honorable discharge; provides preferential referral for veterans to jobs and training opportunities; determines under the Immigration and Nationality Act the availability of U.S. workers and the possible adverse effect upon their wages and working conditions of according entry visas to aliens seeking employment; receives job opening listings from Federal contractors and refers workers to them; registers farm labor contractors; and carries out a large variety of other functions. In short, the employment service now has become intertwined with almost every aspect of American life that involves manpower, and one of its greatest sources of strength is the enormous storehouse of manpower knowledge and manpower skills it has accumulated over the years.

Indeed, many of the tools developed during 40 years of evolution from a labor exchange to a broader manpower agency—three editions of the DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES, oral trade questions, the General Aptitude Test Battery, various specific aptitude and proficiency tests, aptitude tests for persons with limited reading skills, interest inventories, work samples, occupational and special job guides, computerized job listings—have done much to transform the process of matching worker to job from a hit-or-miss proposition into a science, and have been adopted widely by employers, unions, and foreign governments and organizations.

Placements Exceed 400 Million

As the Nation recalls the passage of the Wagner-Peyser Act four decades ago, we can see marked changes in our society and in the institutions that serve society. These changes, which have proceeded at a rate never before experienced by any nation in history, have presented serious challenges to the institutions that exist to deal with them. Since June 6, 1933, the employment service has been facing up to the challenges and devising solutions to many of the country's ever-changing employment problems.

Throughout those 40 years, the service has made over 409 million job placements and conducted 48 million counseling interviews since 1946, when counseling data were first recorded. By offering occupational and labor market information and close cooperation with school counselors, it has helped two generations of young Americans choose careers more wisely. Equally important, through operating in ways responsive to the will of the Congress, the employment service has shown that fears of Federal Government control of the labor supply were groundless, for the partnership provided for in the Wagner-Peyser Act strengthened the Federal system. Through increased orderliness in the labor market, the scope of freedom has been increased, not attenuated, both for the individual and for industry seeking the right man for the right job.

In this age of "future shock" no one can predict what new challenges lie ahead for the employment service. But, if past is prologue, the service will be found ready to meet them. □

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News & Notes

Johnny Unitas and Tom Matte no longer are moving the football for the Baltimore Colts, but they have given the shirts off their backs to help Baltimoreans find jobs. A billboard ad for the Maryland State Employment Service shows the jerseys of two veteran players hanging in the locker room. "Some of the best people in Baltimore want to work," says the billboard, and it asks employers with openings to call the employment service. A spokesman for the Maryland Employment Service said the jerseys of Unitas and Matte were used because after last season both were looking for work with other teams. They have since been traded to the San Diego Chargers.

* * *

William H. Kolberg, former assistant director for program coordination of the Office of Management and Budget (OMB), has been appointed Assistant Secretary of Labor for Manpower. A long-time Federal official, Kolberg, 46, served in the Labor Department as Associate Manpower Administrator for Policy, Evaluation, and Research before moving on to the OMB in 1970.

* * *

A study has shown it is feasible to extend unemployment insurance coverage to farmworkers, Secretary of Labor Peter J. Brennan has informed congressional leaders. The study, mandated by Congress in the Employment Security Amendments of 1970, shows that "the costs of providing unemployment insurance protection to farmworkers are not prohibitive to farm employers or to the Unemployment Insurance system as a whole," Brennan said. The Labor Department estimates that 65,000 employers and 635,000 workers would be affected in 1975 if a law were enacted bringing farmworkers under unemployment insurance coverage.

* * *

Employment service placements of the poor and minorities have increased sharply. Figures for the first half of fiscal year 1973, compared with the first half of fiscal 1971, show a rise of 37 percent in minority placements and 63 percent in placements of the poor. Overall placements jumped almost 50 percent (in the same period) from 1.1 million to 1.6 million. Nonagricultural job listings during the same periods rose from 3.1 million to 3.8 million.

Proficiency tests leading to certification of automobile mechanics will be given twice a year at some 200 locations throughout the Nation. The tests are sponsored by the National Institute for Automotive Service Excellence, an organization formed by automobile manufacturers and dealers. Tests are given in six different elements of automobile repair, and mechanics who pass one or more of the tests receive a shoulder patch. Of 13,512 mechanics who took the first tests (which then consisted of five parts) late last year, 8,808 passed one or more of the parts. Of 8,113 who took all five parts, 1,425 passed them all.

* * *

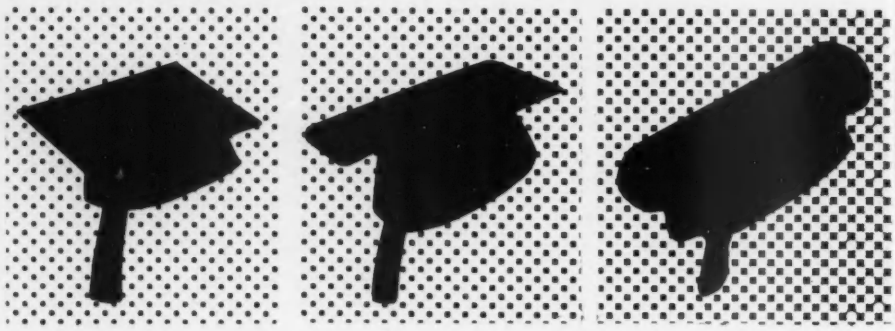
Cuban refugees, almost all of whom first settled in Florida upon arriving in this country, have moved to other States in substantial numbers. That is the conclusion of a study of the Cuban refugee population by Dr. Rafael Prohias, a Florida Atlantic University professor. Dr. Prohias estimates that less than half of the almost 613,000 Cuban refugees in the United States now live in Florida. He credits much of the resettlement progress to the Federal Government's Cuban Refugee Emergency Program, which helped find jobs and provided a month's free rent for refugees agreeing to move to other States.

* * *

Are people over 40 compatible with the lifestyle on an American college campus? The State University of New York plans to find out by enrolling 250 or more middle-aged men and women next fall as residental students at its Brockport campus. To meet the needs of students in the Mature Adult Program, the College at Brockport is establishing a special admissions procedure that does away with entrance examinations, arranging for individual counseling and special seminars, and setting aside a new residence hall for older students.

* * *

A survey of 33 New York State agencies that employ more than 132,000 people showed that workers over 65 perform "about equal to and sometimes noticeably better than younger workers," according to Jack M. Sable, New York State Commissioner of Human Rights. The agencies responding to the survey had about 3,700 workers between 65 and 70.



From Ph.D. to Plumber

by Ann Ober

"Get a Ph. D. from VEC" reads the headline on an ad for the Virginia Employment Commission. But a plumber with a Ph. D?

That's what Valley Air Conditioning Company of Roanoke got—a plumber, Klass Hoen, who has a doctorate in agronomy.

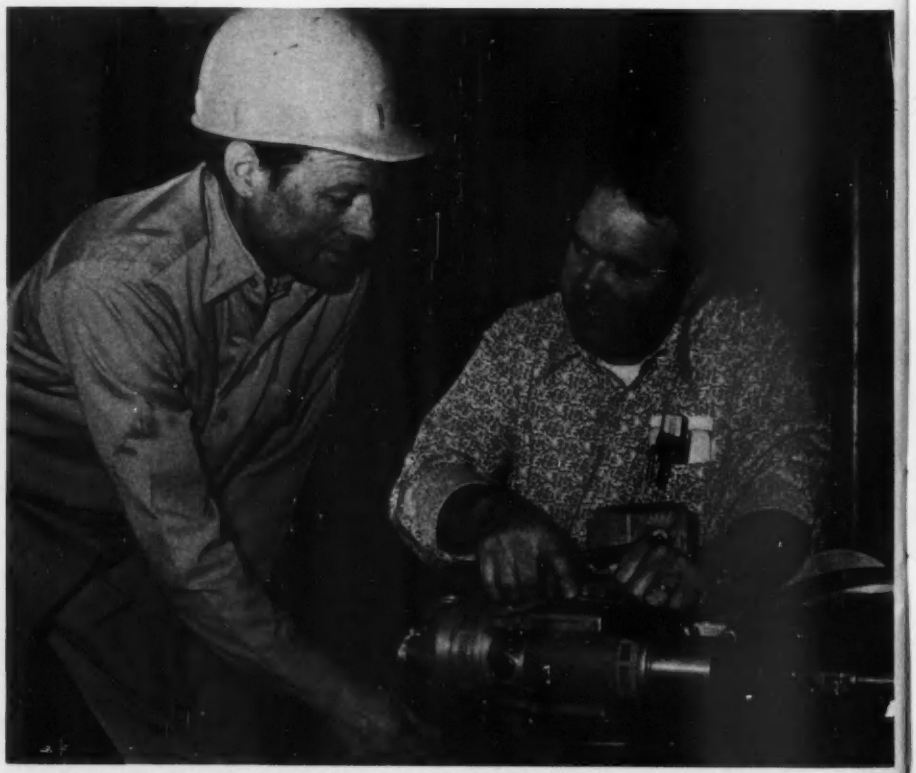
"He's doing a first-class job, too," says Dennis Doyle, Valley's plumbing superintendent. "He's an A-1 employee. I know when I give him a job, it'll be done as fast and as accurately as he can possibly do it."

Hoen also seems happy with the outcome. "I enjoy working with my hands, and like my job very much," he said.

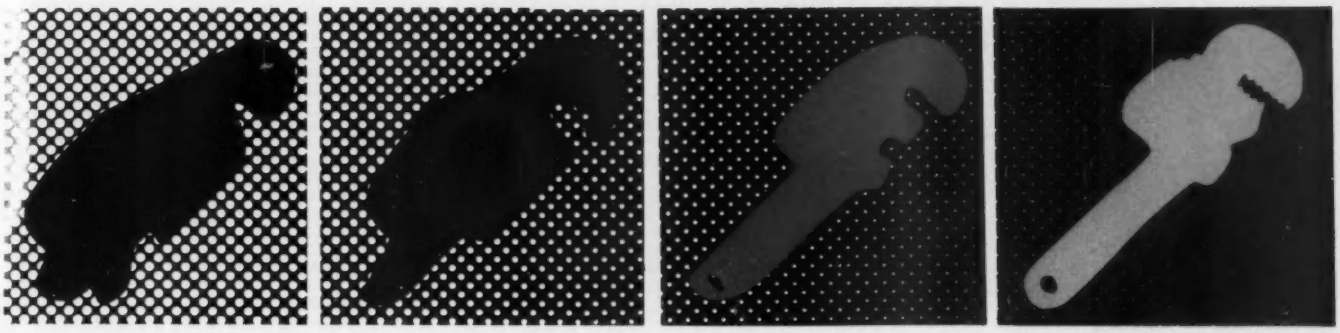
A native of Holland, Hoen received his doctorate from the University of Wisconsin in 1958. He spent the next 12 years working in agronomy research in Ireland, Austria, and Holland. In 1970 he returned to the United States and taught German and English in the Raleigh, N. C. city school system. The following year he taught horticulture in Warrenton, N. C.

In August 1971, Hoen, his wife Myra, and their three children moved to the Roanoke Valley area of Virginia where he hoped to find

Ann Ober is an information officer with the Virginia Employment Commission.



Hoen (left) gets some tips on operating a core drill machine from his supervisor, Dennis Doyle.



work in agronomy. Having no success, he turned to the Virginia Employment Commission where, because of his interest in learning a trade, he was referred to Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) representiative George Adams at the Southside Skills Training Center in Crewe. Adams admits he was doubtful that a Ph. D. would be interested in plumbing.

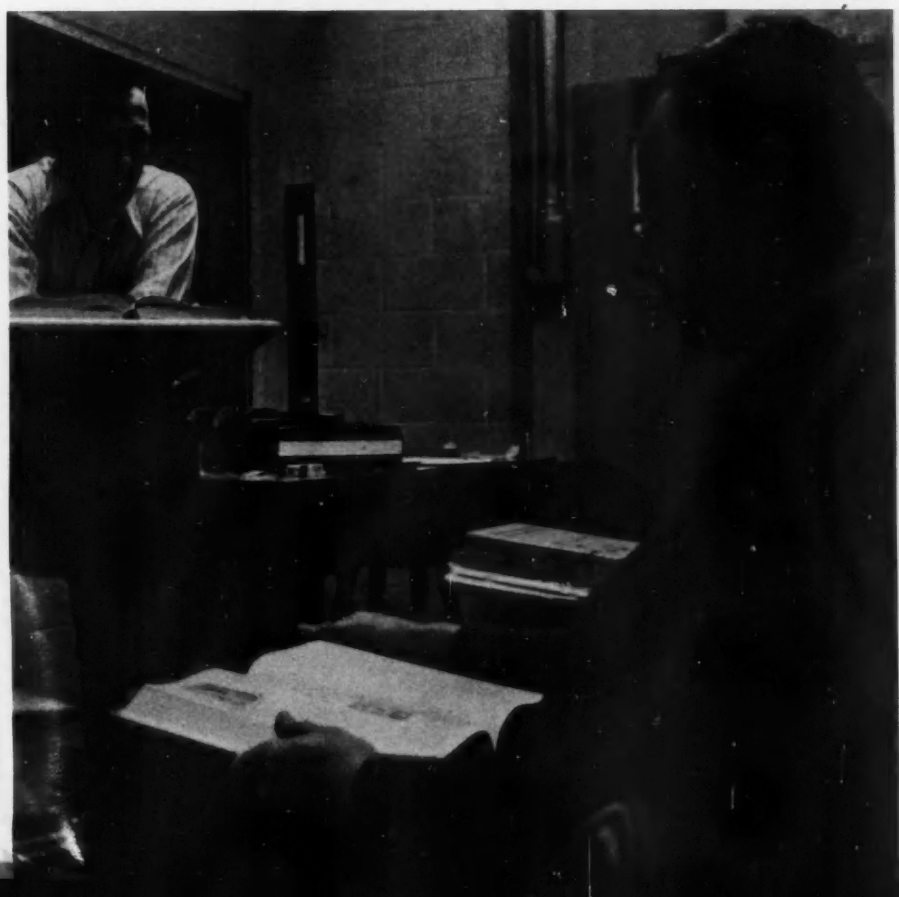
"I talked at length with Dr. Hoen and showed him exactly what would be expected of him at the Center," Adams said. "Then, when I was sure he knew what would be in store, I enrolled him in the plumbing course." Adams also sought a job for Hoen and found one for him with Valley Air Conditioning.

Described by Adams as "highly motivated" and "determined to provide a decent living for his family," Hoen completed the plumbing course earlier than scheduled by working part time for Valley. He now works full time and is getting further training in a refrigeration-air conditioning course at Virginia Western Community College in Roanoke. He will complete the course in June 1974 and hopes then to get into air conditioning work with Valley.

Hoen now makes about $3 an hour. When he becomes a journeyman plumber his pay could move up to about $4.50, and the local rate for air conditioning mechanics is $6.

"Eventually, I might like to go into business for myself," Hoen said, "but right now I'm happy with my job."

Hoen has high praise for the skills center course. "I got the basic principles of plumbing, a knowledge of tools, parts, and equipment connected with the work, and learned the language," he said. □



It's not every home gardener who can call on the services of a Ph. D. in agronomy, but that is the case when Hoen mixes his own pot soil.

The air-conditioning-refrigeration course he is taking at Virginia Western Community College should help Hoen qualify for a higher paying job.

Words & Figures

Rural Manpower Services

Long-term trends in the rural population have contributed to the impression of an economically stagnant rural America. While the urban population has grown almost threefold in the last 50 years, the rural population has remained stable at about 53 million persons. The farm population, which was three-fifths of the rural total in 1920, has declined to less than one-fifth. Agriculture no longer dominates the rural economy.

Historically, economic activity has gravitated toward urban centers. Declining economic opportunities in rural areas have led to poverty and outmigration, both major problems. However, recent signs point to a revitalization of some rural areas close to urban centers. Employment growth in these areas has been in nonagricultural industries, usually labor intensive low-wage industries, such as textiles, apparel, wood products, and electronics.

The problems of rural areas were discussed in the *1971 Manpower Report of the President* and a four-pronged action program proposed:

- Strengthening manpower, educational, and related services in rural areas.
- Developing new employment opportunities in or within reach of rural areas.
- Improving labor standards in farmwork.
- Helping rural workers to relocate.

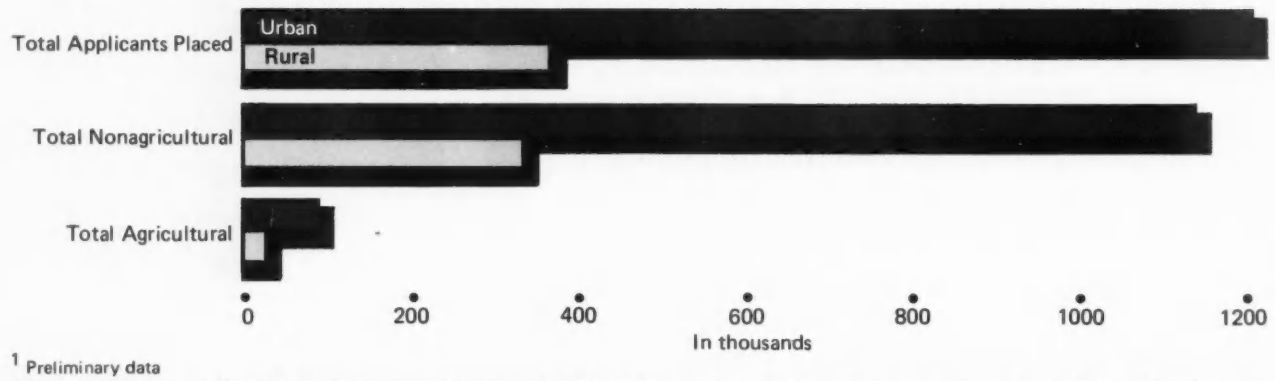
Rural residents were presumed not to be sharing proportionately in manpower services, mainly because of the difficulties involved in reaching a widely scattered population. Data now being produced by the Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS) permit a more detailed examination than was possible before of the extent and kinds of manpower services rural residents are getting.

ESARS data show that 23 percent of employment service applicants placed in jobs during the first half of fiscal year 1973 were rural residents. Workers living in rural counties account for approximately 20 percent of the labor force. These placements of rural workers were not weighted toward agricultural jobs. Only about 8 percent of rural residents who obtained jobs through the employment service were placed in farm jobs. Of these, 18 percent went into jobs whose terms of employment exceeded 150 days. Placement data do not cover mass placements which are primarily for seasonal work.

Rural residents tended to be over-represented in jobs at the lower end of the pay scale and under-represented at the upper end. They accounted for 28 percent of all individuals placed in jobs paying $1.60 or less an hour but only 15 percent of those placed in jobs paying $3.40 or more.

Enrollment of rural residents in work-training programs varied greatly, ranging from a high of 55 percent of all enrollees in Operation Mainstream to a low of 12 percent of all participants in the Work Incentive (WIN) and Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Programs.

Urban and Rural Applicants Placed During Fiscal Year 1973 – July -Dec. '72[1]



[1] Preliminary data

Note: Detail may exceed totals because the same applicant may be included in more than one placement category (for example, if he was placed once in a nonagricultural job and once in an agricultural job during the reporting period) but in total placements he is counted only once.

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R&D Reports

Following is a selected list of reports on research and development projects funded by the Manpower Administration. Copies of reports designated NTIS are available from the National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Va. 22151 for $3.00 for a paper copy or 95 cents for microfiche, unless another price is shown. Send remittance with order and specify accession number (PB plus six-digit number). For reports not designated NTIS, single copies are available from the Office of Research and Development, Division of Research and Development Utilization, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Room 100, 1111 20th Street, NW., Washington, D.C. 20210. Special arrangements may be made for bulk orders.

A Study of Black Male Professionals in Industry

Study of what happened to 500 black male college graduates after they entered white business firms and how they felt about their jobs and companies. Data were obtained from personal interviews in the summer of 1971 with professionals (mostly under age 35 and with an average of 6.5 years of experience in private industry) employed in the 10 cities having the largest numbers of blacks in the labor force (excluding Washington, D.C., and Newark). Also available in summary form from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 20402 for 50 cents. Specify Research Monograph No. 26 (stock no. 2900-00172) and enclose payment.

Requirements and Design of a Labor Market Information System for a Large Metropolitan Area

Study, conducted between July 1970 and December 1972 in the San Francisco Bay area, sought to design a comprehensive system for gathering, processing, and delivering labor market information. Report should be of interest to manpower planners, those responsible for research and analysis, and those who collect and process labor market information for jobseekers and employers. NTIS (PB 213744). $9.00.

Methods of Assessing the Disadvantaged in Manpower Programs: A Review and Analysis R & D Findings No. 14.

Reviews and analyzes assessment techniques for use with disadvantaged persons in manpower programs. Traditional techniques are compared with some of the more than 40 assessment devices coming out of, or still in the pipeline of, research and development projects sponsored by the Manpower Administration and other agencies. Describes results of several completed and on-going projects concerned with specially designed assessment tools for guiding the disadvantaged into training or employment. Examines General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) and commercially available tests used in manpower programs, vocational rehabilitation, and academic and vocational education. NTIS (PB 213167).

A Feasibility Study of a Computer-Based Manpower Information System for the Construction Industry

Study to develop pilot construction labor market information system through use of electronic data processing and in conjunction with the Job Bank. Report says computerizing information on the labor supply offers great advantages to an industry characterized by short-term employment and high turnover in jobs. System with emphasis on the supply side (skills bank) should tend to reduce the burden of screening applicants, compensate for insufficiently detailed classification codes, and cut time lost by workers between jobs and by contractors waiting for applicants. Short- and long-term gains expected by implementing the system include increases in productivity and improved employment. Researchers concluded costs to Government for assisting in implementation of system could be more than compensated by reductions in construction costs and savings to consumers. A followup demonstration, based on findings and recommendations of this study, currently is in progress in Boston and Vermont. NTIS (PB 214104).

Job Improvement Service Demonstration Project

Describes an experimental and demonstration program of counseling on the worksite for those who might be in danger of immediate job loss because of a slump in performance or job-related behavioral problems, particularly lower income employees. Experienced counselors employed by the project, with the support of but not directly associated with company management, tackled job adjustment problems of employees in retail sales, manufacturing, banking, and civil service.

The Development and Utilization of Manpower Resources in the Homebuilding Industry: A Local Survey of Contemporary Practices

Study based on structured interviews with homebuilders and subcontractors in Buffalo and interviews with industry spokesmen in several northeastern cities and officials of the National Association of Homebuilders. Focuses on residential construction, which is dominantly nonunion, and examines hiring practices, training, wages and benefits, and seasonality. Employers surveyed expressed a willingness to sponsor more efficient systems of recruiting workers and more formal training programs to fill shortages. NTIS (PB 212200).

The Work Incentive Program: Making Adults Economically Independent

Study of welfare and low-income working mothers in Camden County, N.J., during 1969 and 1970 turned up many misconceptions about women on welfare. Report divides welfare mothers by life style into groups ranging from "traditionalists" (expecting to be financially supported and feeling entitled to accept welfare when support is not received from a husband or family) to "modernizers" (actively seeking economic independence and social mobility). Study recommendations cover restructuring the Work Incentive (WIN) Program; preventing welfare dependency; and improving manpower and welfare programs in general.

The Aerospace Employment Project

Overview of a pilot project sponsored by the Departments of Labor and Housing and Urban Development to find out if a substantial demand for unemployed aerospace engineers and scientists existed or could readily be generated in State and local government managerial and technical fields. Four hundred unemployed engineers and scientists selected from 10 areas of the country hardest hit by aerospace job cutbacks attended a 1-month orientation at either Massachusetts Institute of Technology or the University of California in Berkeley. Eight months later 78 percent of the participants had been placed in jobs, about two-thirds of them with State and local governments. Report covers the orientation course, the delivery network, relocation, salary, placement results, and other factors affecting placement. NTIS (PB 213670). $6.75.

A Study of the Local Job Bank Program: Performance, Structure, and Direction

Analyzes data concerning the operation of local Job Banks, a computer-assisted system for recording, storing, and listing information on job openings. Focuses on the extent to which program goals were achieved; the determination of optimal organizational design of Job Banks; and the impact of research findings and recommendations on program direction and structure. Also details the historic development of the Job Bank. NTIS (PB 212690).

Employer Services Activities and Manpower Policy

Monograph identifying and discussing issues involved in operating employer services programs in local employment service offices. An outgrowth of a research and development project conducted from mid-1971 through January 1973 in Grand Rapids, Mich., which tested innovative techniques for increasing the quantity and quality of job openings listed with the employment service. NTIS (PB 211993).

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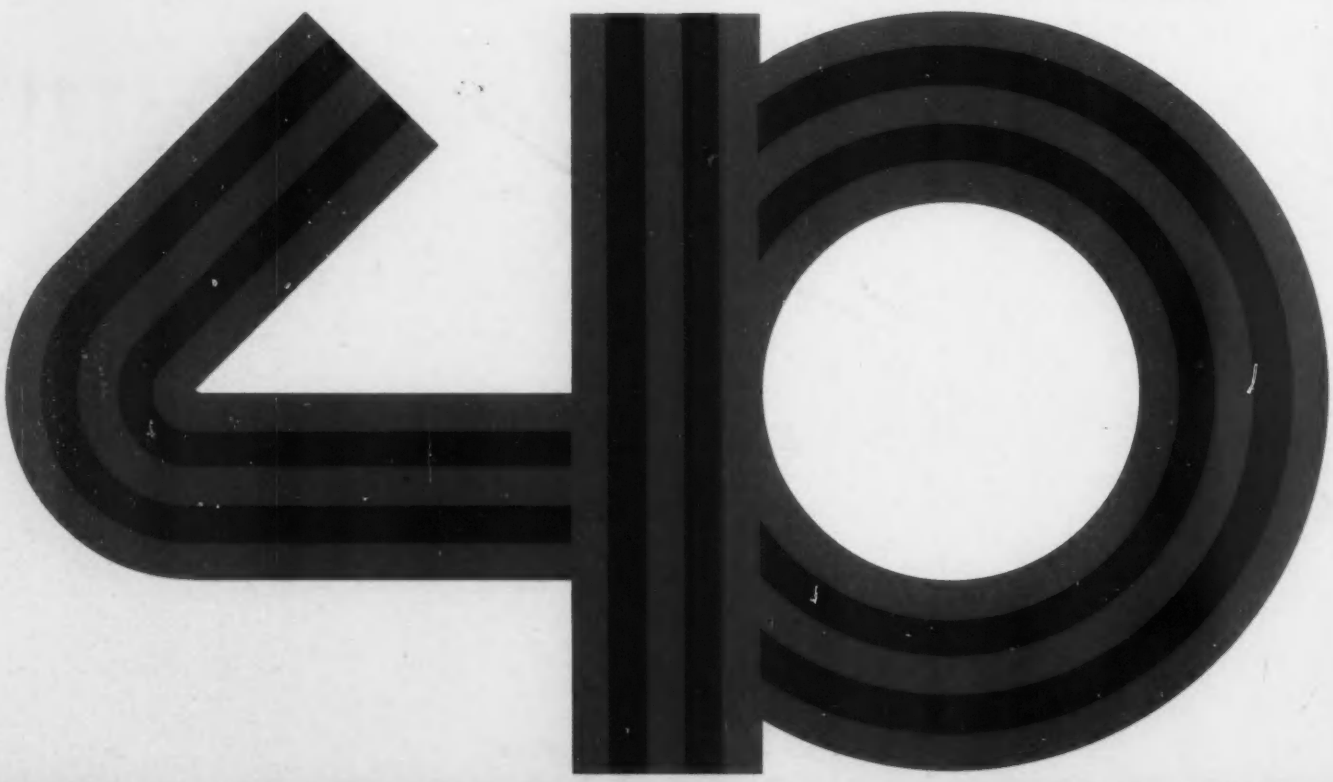
Conceived in war, nurtured in controversy, the United States Employment Service this month celebrates its 40th anniversary. Over the years, through continuing and expanding efforts to help people obtain jobs, the employment service has played an increasingly important role in the operation of the world's most dynamic labor market. This issue of MANPOWER examines the employment service through the perspective of history and the experience of today. The origins of the employment service and the contentious debates that attended its birth are recalled in *40 Years of Healing 'Community Injuries.'* Today's priorities and how a modern public employment agency responds to them are the subject of *Nation's Job Broker: Status Report at 40.*



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